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With best Compliments from the Author—

OUTLINES
OF
The British System of Administration
in India.

(For use in Secondary Schools and Colleges)



BY

N. D. MISRA, B.A

2nd Lieutenant

AUTHOR OF

A SHORT DOCUMENTARY HISTORY OF EUROPE

FIRST EDITION }
500 COPIES }

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FOREWORD.

—:o.—

This book ought to serve a very useful purpose. It contains a large number of important and salient facts with which every Indian student should be conversant. The facts are arranged logically and make very interesting reading. The style of the book is simple and its meaning ought to be plain to all alike.

MAJOR T F O'DONNELL M C, B. A.,

Registrar,

LUCKNOW UNIVERSITY.

PREFACE

In presenting the 'Outlines of the British System of Administration in India, I, at once, claim that I have been chiefly led by the difficulties of students in getting one single book containing all the necessary information required of them by the examiners, again the difficulty is further heightened because of the Reform Scheme of 1919, which has introduced some very substantial changes in the entire constitution of British India. But while keeping in view the above, I have spared no pains to make the Outlines as interesting and instructive, as is possible within the scope of these few pages, for the general public, into whose hands the Outlines is likely to fall. I may also add that I have consciously avoided a chapter on the physical aspects and the peoples of India, knowing as I do that these are a common feature to all books on History, but even this omission is not likely to be keenly felt after a perusal of the Outlines. The few appendices at the end of the book will be found very instructive and informing. I would very much like the idea of the Outlines being read and explained in the class rather than used as a cram book, which would undoubtedly defeat the object I have in view of interesting our youngmen in questions which they have got to face the moment they enter the 'battle of life'. A talk on 'Rights and Duties' will do a lot of good to stimulate interest and should be done.

The omissions, pointed above, are solely due to the great hurry in which the work has been done. Almost all these chapters were given to the classes in the form of lectures and at the explicit desire of several eminent men they have been reduced to writing and published here.

I am sincerely sorry for the few spelling mistakes, which have crept in due to hurry, and would request my young readers to make the necessary corrections as given in the 'correction slip' before starting to read the Outlines.

I am extremely thankful to almost all the good writers on the subject for having resorted to their writings in search of the shortest yet the sweetest. In this connexion I am deeply indebted to Sir Stanley Reed K B E, LL D, for having constantly made use of his statistical data and other summaries in some places, and also to Dr Jidu Nath Sarkar, V G Kale, Le Wauer, Sir J Stretchby, Ilbert and several others. I have also freely made use of government publications in several places.

I am also deeply indebted to Major T F O'Donnell Registrar, Lucknow University for his having very kindly given a valuable foreword to the book.

I shall deem my labours amply rewarded if the book proves useful to those for whose benefit it has been written.

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Correction Slip

Page	Line	Printed	Read
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17	6	unweildy	unwieldy
28	3	transferring	transferring
30	15	Connote	connote
36	21	sub Divisions,	Sub Divisions,
		into	into
39	15	empire	Empire
40	last	the	The
41	1	having	leaving
41	4	chargeble	chargeable
43	10	chai_e	change
46	19	Hatchison	Hutchison
47	3	unweildy	unwieldy
49	19	supereme	supreme
65	11	tho	the
72	22	being	was
79	6	and, 78	and '78
80	23	wielded	welded
92	10	slanhter	slaughter
95	last	there then	then
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142	Mar	Note pax britania	pax Britanica
142	9	success	success

CHAPTER I.

introductory The word administration is derived from the Latin word *administro* ad, to, and *ministro* to serve. The administration of a country is also called its government or its constitution. It means the arrangement that exists in the country for maintaining order and securing progress. A supreme political authority capable of enforcing its orders and upholding its arrangements is an essential requisite for all ordered progress. This authority may either be vested in an individual or in a group or groups of persons. It may make its arrangement either direct or through subordinate authorities. However a competent political authority on the one hand and obedience or submission to it on the other, are the conditions essential. The word constitution is sometimes used in a limited sense to mean the nature and extent of the powers of the governing authority, and, where the governing authority consists of several parts, of the relation of the several parts to one other.

Again it is a truism that the maintenance of order is the end of every administrative system,

but it is not merely by the maintenance of order that a system can be judged. Order may be maintained as well under an arbitrary and grinding despotism as under a generous and responsible government. In judging of the merits of a system, therefore, attention has to be paid to the character of order maintained and the conditions under which it is maintained. It has to be seen how far the political machinery is fitted to meet the demands of peace and security, individual and social liberty, justice between man and man, economic prosperity, generally, the development of the country and the happiness of the people. Such then are the standards by which any administration is to be judged.

Before we commence our study of the present ~~The Early Hindu~~ system of administration in details, ~~system of~~ government let us have a running retrospect of the ancient and mediæval systems of administrations in India and their consequent development, to enable ourselves to have a clearer grasp of the whole. During the long ages preceding the Mohammedan supremacy, the social organization of the Hindus passed through gradual stages of development and decay such as are incident to all

human institutions. The early conquerors and settlers on the banks of the Indus, the Hindu kingdoms, which during a later age occupied the bulk of the Indian Peninsula, and their successors in the days of their decline, had all their systems of government. To begin with, the society being in its infancy, it was patriarchal. In the second Epoch the administration of law was still rude, and, as among other nations, trial by the ordeal of fire was recognized. To discover the truth was the end and object of law, and law was described as truth. In the third period, both criminal and civil laws had come into operation. It was on the law of inheritance that the Hindu legislators bestowed the greatest attention. Accounts of the system of administration in the Buddhist period are copious, and additional light is thrown by writers like Arrian Strabo, and other Greek writers, including the famous Magasthenes. The system of administration described in the Manu's code is an absolute monarchy. His main functions are declared to be to restrain violence and punish evil doers. The manner in which he was to pass his day is laid down with precision. The king was to appoint seven councillors to assist him in his business and a learned Brahman

above them all. He was also to employ suitable persons for the collection of revenues, and an ambassador, who had fulfilled the functions of a minister of foreign office. The administration was to be conducted by a chain of civil officers, rising from heads of single township or villages to heads of one thousand villages. The villages enjoyed a large measure of local autonomy, according to the unmemorial custom of the country. Magasthenes found the system in full force, and each little rural unit seemed to the Greek an independent republic. Every considerable town had its superintendent of affairs, whose duty it was to check the abuses to which the local officers were prone. Magasthenes mentions that India was divided into 118 kingdoms. A considerable portion of Manu's code is filled with maxims and instructions regarding military organization, and foreign politics. However the laws of war and conquest were remarkable for their humanity. The revenue consisted of a share of the produce of land, taxes on commerce, a small annual imposition on shopkeepers and traders. In the sphere of local government, Joint Committees of men and women laid out parks, erected communal halls and rest houses, constructed reservoirs, and

maintained intervillage roads and paths. Further federations of republics were formed to stem the rising tide of monarchical aggression. The Imperial government though despotic, was a government by council in the central and local sphere and respected village autonomy. It maintained an elaborate judicial organization, systematised the collection of revenue and kept a strict watch on the doings of its agents. Its system of agricultural irrigation was almost perfect. It never failed to relieve famine and other national calamities. A culture state, in the highest sense of the term, it exerted all its power and patronage in the cause of learning and morality. After the fall of the Mauryan Empire, its principles of policy and organization subsisted to be observed partially by the numerous petty states to be revived in full vigour under the Gupta and Vardhan Empires. The church always remained separate from the state. The state always maintained richly endowed universities. Peripatetic academics served to co-ordinate research work all over India. To explain political facts arose schools of politics. Sukra, Manu, Kanika in Mahabharat, Bhavi, Mugh, Dandin and a few others are the only classic writers and poets on this subject.

The Mohamedan Empire attained the pinnacle of glory and good government in the days of the Moghuls in the time of Al bar the great, also the reign is a very significant pivot from the point of view of Moghul administration for two reasons—(a) it is the central period, and the accounts are copious, and (b) it is a high water mark in the administration

"The good prince", says Abul Fazal, "refuses not his attention to the most trivial points and this principle was carried to the full in the management of Akbar's stupendous establishment" The splendid halls, the spacious courts, stables, the beautiful houses of the queens, the graceful mosque, and the numerous other edifices devoted to business or pleasure must, in their prime, have formed a residence well worthy of a great king The Ain i Akbari contains details regarding the government of every department of the court The treasury, the Jewel office the mint, the harem, the equipage, the department of the water cooler, the kitchen, the frintey, the perfume office, the wardrobe, the library, the picture gallery, the armoury, and the stables are all the subject of precise and minute rules

Religious toleration and a desire to conciliate and include within his system the Hindu population, were the key notes of Akbar's government.

For the purposes of administration the empire was divided into 15 Subas or Provinces, to each Province was appointed a governor in whom was vested the Supreme Civil and Military authority. Akbar's revenue policy was based on ancient Hindu customs and much of it survives to this day. He first executed a survey to measure the land. His officers then found out the produce of each acre of land, and settled the government share, amounting to one third or one-fourth of the gross produce. Finally they fixed the rate at which this share was commuted into a money payment. At first this settlement was annual but to avoid expense and save the peasant from vexations and extortions it was repeated every tenth year. The settlement was made under the direct supervision of Raja Todarmal. The principal local revenue collector was *amalmar*. He was a magistrate and police officer as well as a revenue official and had to concern himself with all matters affecting the well being of the peasant.

try His duties bear a striking resemblance to those of a modern collector He was instructed to consider himself the immediate friend of the husband man to be diligent in business and a strict observer of truth He had to punish the 'crafty and disobedient', and had to endeavour to bring waste lands under cultivation He was to assist the needy cultivator with loans of money The local treasury was entrusted to his care, and he had to send the receipts to the Head Quarters as soon as they exceeded a certain sum He was to make a monthly report of market, weather, and other general conditions affecting the people Every considerable town was in charge of a *Jotiril* The villages had their hereditary watchman Apart from the magistrate, justice was administered by a *Miradil* and *Ka* :

This in brief was the moghul system of government

CHAPTER II

British System of Administration

According to Sir C P Ilbert the history of The three British Period falls into three periods
Periods The first extends from the begin-

ning of the 17th to the middle of the 18th century, during which period the Company is a mere trading corporation existing on the sufferance of the native powers and in rivalry with the merchant powers of Holland and France. During the next century the Company acquires and consolidates its dominions, shares its sovereignty in increasing proportions with the crown, and gradually loses its mercantile privileges and functions. After the Mutiny of 1857 the remaining powers of the company are transferred to the crown, and then follows an era of peace in which India awakens to new life and progress. For a better comprehension of the development of administrative machinery it seems essential to review in brief the salient incident of the rise and growth of British power.

The Charter granted, by Queen Elizabeth on the 31st of the sixteenth century empowered the Company to assemble and hold Court for the purposes of making laws for its government, and vested the direction of its affairs in a Governor and twenty four persons who were elected annually. By the end of the 17th century this constitution had developed into the

General Court of Proprietors and the Court of Directors. Every holder of £ 500 stock had a vote in the Court of Proprietors, and the possession of £ 2,000 stock was the qualification for a Director. The Directors were still 24 in number, and were still elected annually by the Proprietors, who could also over rule their proceedings, a power which they exercised towards the close of Warren Ha ting's administration by maintaining him in office in the teeth of opposition both of the Directors and of the resolution of the House of Commons. At the close of this period the affairs in the three settlements were administered by president and council collectively. The three presidencies were independent of one another and subordinate to the court of Directors in England. The servants of the company were classified as clerks, factors, senior factors and merchants. Promotion was by seniority. Salaries were small but were supplemented by less honorable means.

Political condition of India in the middle of the Eighteenth Century —

At this period when the company first began to play a part in the political affairs of India, the Mughal power was tottering to its fall,

and the great Marhatta confederacy, the chief officers of the empire, the old Hindu Princes, and newly risen soldiers of fortune were warring incessantly for the mastery of its possessions. The emperor was but a shadow of a great name. Ahmad Shah, the Afghan, wrested the Punjab from him in 1752, and this country remained under Afghan rule for 50 years until it was conquered by Ranjit Singh and his Sikhs. Rohilkhand, the country lying in the angle between the upper Ganges and the Himalayas, had been appropriated by Afghan adventurers, known as Rohillas, from the Afghan Hills. The viceroy of Oudh and Bengal had converted their provinces into virtually independent kingdoms. The Rajputana states had fallen under the supremacy of the Marahattas, who levied large contributions from the Rajput chiefs. The Marahattas, though not at the height of their power, had already spread across the Peninsula from the west coast to the confines of Bengal, and from the Tungbhadra in the south to the river Jumna in the North. In the Deccan, the most powerful ruler, outside the Marahatta territories, was the Nizam-ul-mulk, another Mughal viceroy, who had shaken off the yoke of Delhi.

His nominal subordinate the Nawab of Carnatic ruled over the territory on the east coast, which forms the principal part of the modern Madras Presidency. In the south of the Peninsula were various Hindu principalities, of which the largest was Mysore, under a Hindu Prince, destined to fall ere long into the power of Haider Ali. Such was the position of the main actors in the grand drama of territorial acquisition. None of them had an assured dominion and their boundaries changed incessantly with the varying chances of war.

In this hot bed of strife the company found ~~clives con~~ the role of peaceful trade: impossible quests to maintain and when the central power failed to protect the company it had to arm itself against the call usages or covetousness of local potentates and also against the rivalry of the French. The curse of struggle between the two European powers and the brilliant part that Clive played and the causes of the French failure are two well known to need mention. Sir Eyre Coote's capture of Pondicherry in 1761 established the British Civil and Military ascendancy.

In Bengal, the British alarmed by a declaration of war in Europe, began to strengthen their defences of Fort William. This encroachment upon the rights of the Nawab's sovereignty was resented by him and culminated in the battle of Plassey 1757. The Puppet Nawab could not manage the kingdom, and the Nawab Vazir of Oudh with the titular emperor invaded the Bengal. He was defeated by Hector Munro at Buxar in 1764. Clive on his return granted Diwani by which Revenue and Civil jurisdiction were left in the hands of the company while the criminal jurisdiction and police remained with the Nawab. In 1772 the British assumed full sovereignty. The victory of Buxar earned their arms to Allahabad, Oudh was at their mercy. But they entertained no idea of further conquest and therefore restored Oudh to the Nawab. This secured peace on the Bengal frontier for forty years.

During the period of 1772-1785 Britain was at war with France, Holland and Spain, and with her own Colonies in America. In India it had to face Haidar Ali and Marhattas, who were both in league with the French. The English navy saved the situation. The only territories

acquired during this period were the domain of the Raja of Berar, and the island of Salsette. The Rohilla War had strengthened the frontier against the Marhattas by transferring Rohilkhand to the Nawab Vazir of Oudh.

Lord Cornwallis came out with a pacific policy in accordance to the wishes of the Directors, but no Act could stay the march of events. He avoided conflict with the Marabttas, but was forced to go to war with Tipu. Tipu was defeated and was stripped of a large part of his dominions.

From 1792 to 1798 the British maintained a rigid attitude of Non-interference. In 1798 Lord Wellesly embarked upon a policy of establishing British ascendancy all over India by his policy of subsidiary treaties. This he carried out with complete success, and when he left India, the Punjab, Sindh and Nepal were the only territories, which remained out side the British influence.

Lord Hastings, endeavours to restore order and to put down the Pindaree hordes resulted in another war (1817-18), by which was broken up the Marahatta confederacy and by which a large

tract of country in western India was acquired, giving to the Bombay Presidency an importance similar to that of Bengal and Madras. The Saugor and Nerhadia territories were taken from the Raja of Nagpur to form Central Provinces. A tract along the Himalayas had already been won from Nepal, to which the principality of Coorg was annexed, as the result of misgovernment.

In 1824 depredations on the Bengal frontier first brought the Burmese into collision with the Government of India. The war resulted in the annexation of Assam, Arakan and Tenasserim. Sindh was conquered by Sir Charles Napier in 1843 and the British frontier pushed on to Baluchistan. The Punjab was annexed by Lord Dalhousie in 1849, and since then the border line has run between British India and Afghanistan. The only tract beyond the Sulaiman range on the North West frontier is the Minor Province of Baluchistan, which includes Quetta, first occupied in 1876. The Kurram valley first occupied during the first Afghan war 1878-80 was finally reoccupied at the request of the Turki inhabitants in 1893, and the Waziristan tract has been gradually brought under British influence.

In 1852 Pegu was annexed to become with other Burmese annexations the Province of Lower Burma. In 1853 the Nizam of Hyderabad made over the Berar as payment for the forces stationed for his protection. It has now been confirmed (1902) Nagpur joined in 1854, and Oudh was annexed in 1856 as a result of Nawab's misgovernment.

In 1857, came the Mutiny and in the following year the Government of India was formally transferred to the Crown. From this time onward, beyond the advance on the North West frontier the only important addition made is the large province of Upper Burma, acquired by conquest in 1858.

One noticeable feature of the history of British India which is apparent even from the rough sketch just concluded, is that the tide of conquest never turned against the Company. Once it had taken a province under its direct administration it was able to ensure permanent peace to the inhabitants however distracted might be the condition of those parts. From this most important circumstance followed that the building up of the administrative system proceeded almost without

It was in 1786 that some of these defects were remedied. Lord Cornwallis had made it a condition of the acceptance of his office that the power of exercising his own discretion in case of a majority going against him should be given him. The Charter Act of 1793 further enlarged the powers of the Governor General, authority being given him to exercise control over the whole of India. The Charter Act of 1833 added a member to assist in legislation and his presence was necessary only at legislative meetings. Again when the charter of the company was renewed in 1853, a separate Governor was appointed for Bengal, the law member was allowed to sit and vote at legislative meeting also. In 1857 came the Mutiny and the condition of India fell into disorder and after this crash the government was divested of its functions. By the "Act for the Better Government of India" the government was transferred from the Company to the Crown and it was provided that all the powers of the Company and the Board of Control be vested in the Secretary of State in concert, in certain cases with a council.

In 1861 important changes took place in the constitution of the Indian Government. The

Council Act of that year still in the main regulates the government of India. Its chief provisions were:—

(i) The Governor General's executive Council was to consist of six ordinary members of whom three must at the time of their appointment have been at least ten years in the service of the crown in India. One of the remaining must be a barrister or a member of the faculty of advocates, in Scotland of not less than 5 years' standing. The qualification of the 5th and 6th are not defined in the statute. The Commander-in-Chief of India may be and in practice always is an "extra-ordinary member of the Council. The Governors of Madras and Bombay become extra-ordinary members if the Council meets within their presidencies.

(ii) When the Governor General visits any part of India he may nominate one of the members of his Council to be president of that Council.

Composition of the Council.

3 Indian officials who must have been at least ten years in office.

1. Barrister or a member of the faculty of the advocates in Scotland of not less than 5 years standing
2. Whose qualifications depend upon the will of the Governor General

Total = 6

But it must be noticed that the Executive Government of India has been, in its composition, by the appointment of the Law Member from the Indian Bar and other Indians as Education and Revenue Members, greatly modified.

In the better exercise of the power of legislation the Governor General was authorised to nominate "additional members" only for legislative purposes. The number of additional members was fixed by the Act of 1861 at twelve as a minimum, of whom not less than one half were to be non officials, who were always natives of India. The Lieutenant Governor of the Province in which the Council met was also made an additional member.

In 1892 important changes were introduced ~~The Act of 1892~~ both in the constitution and legislative powers of the Council. It was recognised

that public criticism and public opinion might exercise a healthier influence on the administration. The number of the additional members was raised to *sixteen*, as a maximum and a representative principle was introduced in the appointment of the members. The method was as before of nomination by the Governor General. Of these sixteen members, six were usually officers and ten non-officials, four of the non-official members were nominated by the non-official members of the Provincial Council, the fifth was recommended by the Calcutta chamber of Commerce, and five were appointed by the Governor General at his own discretion either with a special view to the legislative business to be transacted or to secure the representation of all classes. The Council was also empowered to discuss the budget and to ask questions on matters of public interest.

Also called the Morley-Minto reforms had the Act of 1909 two principles. First to secure the fair representation of the varied interests in the country, and secondly to give the council a real influence in determining the character of the administration. By this act

the number of Additional members was raised to sixty. Of these 35 were nominated by the government and 25 were elected by specified electorates.

Of the nominated members.

(1) 28 were to be officials.

(2) 3 were members to represent the Muhaminedan communities of the Punjab, the landholders of that province and Indian commercial community respectively.

(3) The remaining four were to be appointed by the Governor General

Of the elected members

(1) 11 were to be non-officials from Provincial legislatures

(2) 1 from Dist Boards and municipalities of Central Provinces

(3) 6 Landholders from six Provinces

(4) 5 Representatives of the Mohammedan community in five provinces

(5) 2 Representatives of the Chambers of Calcutta and Bombay

Total 60

The Governor General was given exceptional powers to exclude a member whose reputation

and antecedents were such that his election would be contrary to the public interest. An oath of loyalty to the crown was required of every member before he took his seat. Members held office for 3 years.

The Act has further extended the powers of the provincial governments and the Indian legislatures with a view to the progressive realization of responsible self government in British India is integral part of the British empire. According to the Montford Reform Scheme a second chamber called the Council of State has been created. The Council of State consists of 33 elected members and 27 members nominated by the Governor General, of whom not more than twenty may be officials and one to be a member elected from Berar. The elected members of the council are chosen by a direct election on a high franchise for large constituencies. The strength of the Legislative Council, to be known henceforth as the legislative assembly, is raised to a total of 140 members. The number of non-elected members is forty of whom 26 are official members. The number of elected members is 100, all chosen by direct election.

The powers of the legislature and the special powers reserved by the Governor General for the discharge of his responsibilities, are fully set out in the Act. The term for the Council of State is five, while for the legislative assembly it is three years. The Governor General may however dissolve either of the Chambers or extend the period.

In case, a Bill, which has been passed by one chamber, is not within six months, passed by the other chamber, the Governor General may in his discretion refer the matter for decision to a joint sitting of both chambers under standing orders. The Governor General may also return any Bill after its passage in the council for reconsideration by that House.

On questions relating to the budget proposals, the following items are not to be voted upon by the members. They are —

- (i) Interest and sinking fund charges on loans
- (ii) Expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law, and
- (iii) Salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval

of His Majesty or by the Secretary of
of State in council

- (iv) Salaries of chief and Judicial Commissioners
- (v) Expenditure classified by the order of Governor General in Council as —
 - (a) Ecclesiastical (b) Political (c) Defence

The other items of the budget are to be voted upon, and assent may be given or withheld by the Councils. However the Governor General is authorised to over rule such decisions of the Councils in times of emergency.

The Governor General is also empowered to certify a bill not passed by the legislatures, if he deems it essential. But all such Acts are to be laid before the two Houses of the Parliament for not less than eight days on which that House has sat, and then after the assent of His Majesty in Council and its notification by the Governor General it shall have the same effect as passed by the Indian legislature.

The new Councils are not expected to touch any measure concerning a local government, or

repealing or amending any Act of a local legislature

Before we pass on to study the momentous Executive Council changes introduced in the Provincial legislatures, let us again look at the few changes introduced in the Executive Government of India. The Principal changes made consist in increasing the numbers of Indian members from one to three and in removing all the constitutional barriers in the selection of such members by the king

The Governor General and the Executive members are appointed by the Crown. Custom has fixed a time limit of five years for their tenure of office. The seven Executive members hold respectively the portfolios of Land Revenue and Agriculture, the Home, the Finance and the Education department. The law member holds charge of the legislative department, and a member with English official experience has charge of the commerce and industry. The Viceroy holds charge of foreign affairs. Railways are administered by a Board of three members inclusive of a Chairman, and are under the charge of Commerce and Industry Department.

The Commander-in-Chief holds charge of the Army Department. The Council may meet at any place but custom has fixed it at Delhi and Simla

CHAPTER IV.

The Provincial Governments

The object of the Reforms is the progressive realization of responsible Government. Responsible government implies two conditions, first that the members of the Executive government should be responsible to their constituents, and secondly that these constituents should exercise their power through the agency of their representatives in the Assembly. These two conditions entail that there exist constituencies based on a franchise broad enough to represent the interests of the population generally, and capable of selecting representatives intelligently, secondly that there is a recognized and constitutional practice that the executive can not retain office unless it commands the support of a majority in the Assembly. To fulfil these conditions there must be a period of political education, which can only

be achieved through the gradually expanding exercise of responsibility. Accordingly, the principle is adopted of transferring responsibility for certain functions of the government while reserving control over others.

Since substantial Provincial Autonomy is to be a reality, the provinces must not be dependent on the Indian government for the means of Provincial development. The general idea of the scheme on this matter is that a budget for the upkeep and development of the services required by the Government of India should first be made, and that resources to meet this expenditure should be secured to the Indian government, and that all other revenues should then be handed over to the Provincial governments to develop the Provincial Services. To accomplish this a special contribution from each province is assessed. This is liable to change in accordance to the wishes of the Governor General with his Council, and in cases of a decrease in the contribution the proportion is fixed, but for every increase sanction of the Secretary of State has got to be obtained.

In all the provinces there is a collective

the system of administration, the system of a Government Governor in Council At the head of the executive is the Governor, with an executive nominated by the Governor Associated with the executive Council as part of the government are one or more ministers chosen by the governor from among the elected members of the legislative Council and holding office for the life of the Council.

The plan is adopted of making a division of the functions of the Provincial government, between those which may be made over to popular control and those, which for the present must remain in official hands These functions are called "transferred" and "reserved," respectively In the Provincial executive the Governor in Council has charge of the "reserved" subjects. This is one part of the executive The other part of the executive consists of the governor and the ministers and deals with the "transferred" subjects As a general rule the executive deliberate as a whole although there may be occasions upon which the Governor prefers to discuss a particular question with that part of the government directly responsible. The decision upon a

transferred subject and on the supply for it in the Provincial Budget is taken after general discussion by the Governor and his ministers, the decision on a reserved subject is taken after a similar discussion by the Governor and the members of his executive Councils.

The Ministers hold office not at the will of the legislatures but at the will of their constituents. Their salary while in office is secured to them. The ministers are expected to avail themselves of the trained advice of the Governors, and the Governor is to support them in cases where he realizes the utility of the proposals and as far as they have the support of the Public Opinion.

Since the Act Connotes a sharp division of authority a comprehensive list of subjects reserved for the Central Government is given in the scheme.

The legislative council in each governor's
 Powers of the province consists of the executive
 Legislatures council and of nominated and
 elected members. The Governor is not a member
 but has the right of addressing the council and
 may for that purpose require attendance of mem-
 ber. The number of members varies from

Province to Province but the Act provides that not more than 20 % shall be official members and at least 70 % shall be elected members

The life of a Governor's Council is 3 years, but the Governor may dissolve it sooner or extend the period, but after dissolution he must fix a date for its meeting not later than six months or not more than nine months on consultation with the Secretary of State

The local legislature is empowered to enact or repeal laws concerning the province but it has no authority to enact laws for imposing a new tax, for affecting the public debt of India or the customs duties, for affecting discipline of the military, the foreign relations, for regulating any central subject or a subject partly or wholly declared to be under the Indian legislature, affecting any power reserved by the Governor, altering or repealing any provision of the law, or altering or repealing any Act of the Indian legislature. Also it has no power to any law affecting an Act of Parliament.

A budget is presented every year in the form of a statement to the council and each item can be voted upon, but the Governor in his council

is empowered to overrule the vote in cases of reserved subjects and other subjects deemed essential, also that in cases of emergency the Governor is empowered to authorize expenditure. The members are not authorized to move resolutions on subjects treated as reserved [vide Budget under L. A.] The Governor is also empowered to declare that a certain Bill affects the safety or tranquillity of his province and that no proceedings shall be taken by the council on that Bill.

In the council there is to be freedom of speech and no proceedings shall be taken therein.

The Bills passed by a legislature are to be submitted to the Governor for his assent, which he may withhold and return the Bill for reconsideration or forward it to the Governor General who may either give his assent or withhold it in which case the Bill shall lapse and be of no effect, excepting when it has been kept back for lack of a session of that council or for securing His Majesty's assent thereto.

Again some emergency powers are given to the Governors to act with promptitude in cases of emergency. However such acts are to receive the sanction of the Governor General and that of His Majesty and to be laid before the Parliament.

CHAPTER V.

✓ *The Administration*

Each local government works through a secretariat, which is divided into various departments, each under a secretary. In addition to the secretaries there are special department heads such as the Inspectors General of Police, Jails and Registration, the Director of Public Instruction, the Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, the Sanitary Commissioner and the Superintendent of the Civil Veterinary department. There are also Chief Engineers for Public Works and Irrigation, who are likewise Secretaries to government. In nearly all the Provinces, excepting Bombay, the Revenue Department is under a Board.

The administrative system is based on the The District as the Unit of administration repeated Sub-Division of territory each administrative area being in the responsible charge of an officer, who is responsible to the officer, next in rank above him. The most important of these units is the district and India embraces more than 250 Districts, with an average

area of 4,130 square miles, and an average population of 931,000 Excepting Madras all other Provinces have Commissionerships The head of a District is styled either the Collector and District Magistrate or the Deputy Commissioner He is the representative of the government and embodies the power of the state [He is concerned in the first place with the land and the land revenue He also has charge of the local administration of the excise, income tax, stamp duty, and other sources of revenue As a Magistrate of the first class he can imprison for two years and fine upto a thousand rupees In practice he does not try many criminal cases, although he supervises the work of the other Magistrates in the District

In addition to these two main departments the Collector is interested in all matters pertaining to the welfare of the people In some branches of the administration his functions are, in consequence of the formation of special departments, such as those of Public Works, Forests, Jails, Sanitation, and education less direct than was formerly the case But even in matters dealt with by separate departments his active co-opera-

tion and direction in Council are needed. The municipal government of all considerable towns is vested in Municipalities but it is the duty of the Collector to guide and control their working. He is usually the chairman of the District Board, which with the subsidiary aid of other Boards, maintains roads, schools and dispensaries and carries out sanitary improvements in rural areas.

Other important district officers are the Superintendent of Police who is responsible for the discipline and internal working of the police force, and is directly responsible to his departmental head but in matters relating to the detection and suppression of crime and the peace of the District he is under the control of the District Magistrate. The Civil Surgeon is (excepting Bombay) the head of the medical and sanitary administration of the District as well as that of the Head Quarter town. He supervises Hospitals and dispensaries, has charge of the vaccination establishment and is the adviser of the Collector in all matters connected with the health of the people. He is also, as a rule in direct charge of the District Jail. The local organization of government Public Works, Forets, Education

tion and other special departments does not always correspond with the limits of the revenue Districts. Each District has its own law officer, styled the government *Pleader*.

When not on tour the Collector-Magistrate and other principal officials reside at the Head Quarters Station, which usually adjoins the principal native town. Here are collected the government offices, and court houses, thronged on a busy day with a motley crowd of suitors, pleaders, Clerks, Constables, Shopkeepers, and Peasants. In the Head Quarters town will also be found the principal Hospitals and the District Jail probably also the largest English School and perhaps a College affiliated to the University of the Province.

The Collector Magistrate is aided in his multifarious duties by a large staff of Subordinate Officers, some of whom are his assistants at the Head Quarters and others hold charge of Sub Divisions into which the District is generally split up for efficiency's sake. The Sub Divisional officers are called Deputy Collectors and Magistrates and belong to the Provincial Service, and under these are officers of Subordi-

nate Service, who assist them in their work. In Madras and Bengal the Sub-Divisional officers reside in their Sub-Divisions and have Court-houses, offices, sub-treasury and a sub-jail. In Bombay and U. P., when not touring the Sub-Divisional Officers stay at the Head Quarters. In Bombay, Madras and the U. P. there are smaller Sub-Districts called Tehsils. Generally a *Tesildar* or *Mamlatdar* is under a Sub-Divisional Officer. The area of a *taluk* or *tehsil* varies from 400 to 600 square miles. In Madras the *tehsildar* is generally in charge of the revenue work, elsewhere they have both revenue and magisterial functions. The *tehsildar* is assisted by revenue Inspectors called *Kanungos*, and the village officials who are largely hereditary. The most important is the village Headman who collects the revenues. Next is the *Patwari* who keeps village accounts, registers of holdings, and in general all records connected with the Land Revenue and the *Chaukidar* or village watchman, who is the rural policeman. The Indian village organization is of great antiquity, and inspite of the very complex system of British administration it finds its own place in the fabric of the British rule.

CHAPTER VI.

The Home Government.

The Home Government of India represented for sixty years the gradual evolution of the governing Board of the old E. I. Company. The affairs of the Company were originally managed by the Court of Directors and the General Court of Proprietors. In 1784 Parliament established a Board of Control to control and direct all operations and concerns relating to the Civil and Military Government and revenues of India. By degrees the number of the Board was reduced and its powers were exercised by the president, the lineal precursor of the Secretary of State for India. With modifications this system lasted till 1858, when the mutiny, followed by the assumption of the Government of India, by the crown, demanded a complete change. Under the Act of 1858, merged in the consolidating measures of 1915, the Secretary of State is the constitutional adviser of the crown on all matters relating to India. He has inherited all the powers and duties concerning the Govt and the revenues of India formerly vested in the Company's governing bodies.

his council, and he has fuller powers than in the past to describe the manner, in which business is to be transacted. The law now requires a monthly meeting of the Council.

The number of members of the Council was the India Council reduced by the Act to not less than eight and not more than twelve the Secretary of State being free to appoint within those limits. The period of office is reduced from seven to five years, though the Secretary of State may re-appoint an individual member for a fresh term. Again half of the members must be persons who have resided in India for at least ten years and who have not left India more than five years before their appointment. The salary of each member is £ 1 200 annually and another £ 600 for a member domiciled in India.

Associated with the Secretary of State and the India Council is a secretariat known as the India Office, housed at Whitehall.

In the past the whole cost of this establishment was borne out of the revenues of India, the total net cost going up to £ 2,000 per annum the Home government at times paid annually

nearly £ 50,000 having a balance of £ 2,00 000 According to the new Act the entire expenditure is met from the British revenues, while agency functions alone are chargeable to Indian revenues

His powers are unlimited. However he ~~Powers & Procedure~~ places all the orders in the Council for a perusal of the members except in urgent cases. But if he differs his decision prevails. He generally orders expenditure in consultation with his Council but orders involving large expenditure are given by him either with the consent or knowledge of the Council or without it. In matters requiring secrecy he acts on his own authority. Apart from these the major part of the work is done through the Council, and the Secretary of States often appoints committees for the consideration of questions.

It is wrong to suppose that the Secretary of State is always interfering with the Government of India. His action is mainly confined to answering references made to him by the Government in India and the number and nature of the reference depend upon the character of the Viceroy.

When the Viceroy happens to be a man of rare capacity and intellect like Lord Curzon there are few remedies but there are some who like to do very little on their own authority and therefore consult the Home government before taking any action. The Government of India is quite independent so long as it carries on the administration without increasing to a large degree the cost of government and without incurring heavy charges. The Secretary of State never interferes needlessly in the ordinary business of the administration. The chapter given by Mr James Mill of the Home government still holds good. Thus wrote James Mill —

“It is not so much an executive body as a deliberative one. The Executive government of India is and must be seated in India itself. The principal function of the Home government is not to direct details of administration but to scrutinize and revise the past actions of the Indian government, to lay down principles and issue general instructions for future guidance, and to give or refuse sanction to great political measures, which are referred Home for approval. It should be remembered that the Secretary

of State initiates nothing, inaugurates no new policy ”

The most important part of British administration in India is carried on by comparatively youngmen. Since after 30 years' service retirement is necessary, the highest offices are generally held by youngmen in the prime of their life. One of the weakest points in our administration is the incessant process of change in the personnel of the administration and the constant waste of ripe experience. No Governor or Viceroy holds office for more than five years. The climate and other conditions peculiar to the country make such change inevitable. Owing to these reasons a wise continuity of policy can not be maintained and it is in this respect that the India office, which consists of men of mature Indian experience exercises a healthy influence. The members of the India council, although their knowledge of India is apt to get out of date often know a great deal about the country and help to maintain the traditions of Indian administration. The risk of knowledge growing rusty has been lessened by the new Act, which provides that only those persons who have left India not more than five years before, are eligible. In spite of

all the safeguards the knowledge does get rusty and mistakes do creep in as they are wont to under the circumstances

CHAPTER VII.

The services of the East India company consisted of writers, factors and merchants of whom the Indian civil servant is the direct descendant. Neither their training nor their pay was adequate to the administrative work they had to perform. Clive and Hastings both introduced reforms but Lord Cornwallis reorganized the services on a footing worthy of its task. By his own example and liberal salaries he established a high standard of integrity for such officers. Nominations to the civil service were made by Directors and by the Charter Act of 1793 the Civilians had to enter into a covenant by which they bound themselves to abstain from all private trade presents and other jobbery, and consequently it came to be called covenanted civil service while other civilians who said to belong to uncovenanted service. The names are now obsolete.

In 1800 Lord Wellesley established a college at Fort William for the instruction of young civilians, but the court of Directors disapproved of it and opened a college of their own in England. In 1853 the system of nominations was put an end to and that of competitive examinations was substituted in its stead. The limits of age and other qualifications were laid down. The Act of 1763, which reserved the principal civil appointments to the service, was not applied to the non-regulation Provinces and even in regulation Provinces exemptions required outside appointments. The Act of 1861 legalized all such appointments and scheduled the posts reserved for the services.

The administration of India, though the fact

The employment of Natives in the Civil Service is generally ignored, is largely carried on by the natives of India. Roughly speaking about 1200

Englishmen are employed in the civil government. In the time of Lord Cornwallis the native agency was notoriously inefficient and corrupt and his schemes excluded the Indians from the service. The diffusion of education and discipline habits among the people have enabled them to

realize the responsibilities of public service and with this growth of efficiency and probity the natives of India have been given a larger and larger share in the administration of the country. The introduction of the competitive system in 1855 threw the services open to Indians, but few Indians owing to caste rules, availed themselves of the same. An Act of Parliament passed in 1870 provided that duly selected natives should be eligible for higher posts in the administration. The Act was not given effect to until 1879, when the "Statutory Civil Service" was established. Under this system nomination was made by the Local Government subject to the approval of the Government of India and the Secretary of State. The system, however, proved a failure. It was abandoned in favour of the plan proposed by the Public Service Commission, which set in 1856-57, under the presidency of Sir Charles Hitchison, the Lieutenant Governor of the Punjab. Accordingly the Civil Service was divided into two branches the Indian civil service recruited in England and the Provincial and Subordinate services recruited from among the natives of India in India. Henceforth the distinction between the covenanted and uncovenanted

services was abolished. Admission to the Provincial service is regulated by the local government subject to the approval of the Government of India. It is done sometimes by nomination and sometimes by examination. A large number of the natives of the country have entered into the service of the state and on the whole they have shown greater ability in the discharge of their functions. Another important change is the creation of numerous specialized departments.

The Reform Scheme vests all authority of appointment to the service in the crown, and of classification, methods of recruitment, conditions of service, pay and allowances and discipline and conduct in the Secretary of State.

CHAPTER VIII.

Before British rule in India the administration of Justice was inefficient. The officers were venal and oppressive, and in the greater part of British India the criminal law and procedure were based on the principles of the Moham-

Development of the Judicial System

median law. The law was in a very unsatisfactory condition and as Sir Henry Cunningham aptly puts it, "it was hopelessly unwieldy, entangled and confusing." The system of administration varied from Province to Province. They were classed as Regulation and Non-Regulation Provinces. Improvement in law was badly needed, and in 1833, by the renewal of the Company's Charter, a law member was appointed to aid the Governor-General in his legislative business. The law was simplified and codified. It was cured of the mischievous anomalies that had clustered around it. Lord Macaulay prepared the Penal Code which was completed by him in India. As a result of the Commission of 1853 and 1861 excellent laws were passed by the Indian legislature which are a substantial addition to the codified laws. The Penal Code which became law in 1860 was followed in 1861 by the Code of Criminal Procedure. The Penal Code is the most remarkable monument of Macaulay's fine genius and the success it has achieved is simply marvellous.

Under the Mohammedans Justice was administered by the Kazi who was aided in his court by Mufties and

Maulvis The Panjdars, Muktasils, and Kotwals decided cases of lesser importance. Under the East India Company in very early times justice was administered by the Mayors' Courts established at Madras, Bombay and Calcutta. In the Mufassil the Nawab Nazim exercised judicial authority. When Warren Hastings became Governor of Bengal he found the following Courts in existence in Bengal —

- (1) Mufassil Diwani Adalat in districts presided over by European Zila Judges
- (2) Sadar Diwani Adalat or the Chief Courts of appeal composed of the Governor and his Council
- (3) Mufassil Nizamat Adalat or the Provincial Courts of criminal jurisdiction
- (4) Sadar Nizamat Adalat or the Chief Court of Council appeal

Until 1861 the supreme courts and these courts established by the company exercised jurisdiction. In 1861 the supreme and Sadar courts were abolished by Act of Parliament and in their stead High Courts with both Criminal and Civil jurisdictions were established in Bengal, Bombay, Madras, and the Agra Provinces.

Here the judges are appointed by the crown Constitution of the and hold office during the pleasure of the sovereign. One third of their number are barristers or members of the faculty of advocates of Scotland, and one third are the members of the Civil Service. The remaining one third posts are filled by native lawyers.

The High Courts are Courts of Appeal from the district courts and their decisions are final in all cases except where an appeal lies to His Majesty in Council. The High Courts exercise supervision over the subordinate courts and keep a careful eye on their proceedings.

For those parts of India not included in the presidencies named above, High Courts, under different names were established. Even now the chief appellate authority in some provinces as in Oudh is the Judicial Commissioner.

Every province consists of certain divisions, each of which possesses a court Criminal Courts presided over by a Sessions Judge. Every such division contains a number of

districts, each of which is presided over by a Magistrate who is called the District Magistrate. In big cities like Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay there are presidency Magistrates. Any Sessions Judge may pass any sentence authorized by law but capital sentences have to be confirmed by the High Court. All trials before the High Court are trials by Jury. The Magistrates are divided into three classes

- (1) Magistrates of the first class can pass sentences of imprisonment not exceeding two years and of fine not exceeding 1000 Rupees
- (2) Magistrates of the second class can pass sentences of imprisonment not exceeding six months and of fine not exceeding 200 Rupees
- (3) Magistrates of the third class can pass sentences of imprisonment not exceeding one month and of fine not exceeding 50 Rupees

The substantive criminal law applies equally to all classes of peoples but certain distinctions of procedure have always been maintained for

European British subjects. Lord Ripon placed Europeans and Indians on a footing of equality; but the measure met a vehement opposition at the hands of the Anglo Indian Community, who felt themselves aggrieved by Ripon's action. After a deal of discussion the measure had to be abandoned. The privileges of European British Subjects were not diminished. However, the powers of a native District Magistrate or a Sessions Judge over European British subjects are the same as those of a European Judge. One great exception is that every British subject can claim a trial by Jury.

Before 1859 the procedure was extremely complex. The delays and opportunities for corruption were numerous and fraud was openly practised. In 1859 the code of civil procedure was enacted and it has been from time to time amended. The Civil Courts include the following --

- (1) The District Judge's Court exercising General Control over all the courts.
- (2) Subordinate Judge's Court deciding cases of any value subject to restrictions.

(3) Munsiff's Courts

(4) Small Cause courts deciding petty cases

Until the year 1836 European British subjects were under the jurisdiction of the supreme courts alone. It was then decided by Act VI of 1836 to abrogate this abominable distinction. The opposition of Europeans was vehement but Lord Macaulay with righteous zeal insisted upon passing the measure. Since 1836 no distinctions of race have been recognized in the Civil Courts throughout India.

CHAPTER IX.

The term Native states is applied to those Native States territories which are not directly administered by the officials of British Government in India.

The area enclosed within the boundaries of India is 1,773, 165 square miles with a population of 31, 132, 537 people nearly one fifth of the human race. But of this the Native States cover an area of 671, 267 square miles with a population of seventy millions. The Native States

embrace the widest variety of country and jurisdiction. They range from small holdings to big states. In the case of 175 states control is exercised by the Government of India and of about 500 by the Provincial governments. The other States are grouped under the direction of an Agent to the Governor General, as for instance Rajputana and Central India.

Sir J. Strachey distinguishes three classes of states principally in connexion with their origin

1. States formed on the break-up of the Moghul Empire *e.g.* Marhatta States of Gwahor and Indore, and Hyderabad. They have made wars and treaties on an equal footing with the Paramount power

(ii) Ancient dynasties, which weathered the storms of the 10th century in the Rajputana States, some in the Punjab and some in Madras. These have most often appealed to the Paramount power for protection

(iii) States created by the Paramount power, *e.g.* Kashmir. It was given by Lord Hastings to Golab Singh in 1846 after

the First Sikh War Mysore is another instance in point It was given in 1788 to the descendants of the old Hindu rulers and recreated in 1851

The Moghuls aimed at subjugating the Native states of India and not evolved no policy for governing India, plunder and not the restoration of order was their object The British policy has changed with time and circumstance It may rightly be divided into three sections —

Marquis Hastings, forced by French wars had to interfere with the Native states During that period the British were content with territories, sufficient to safeguard their trading centres and alliances with neighbouring princes They made engagements with Indian rulers who were considered Independent powers The British even considered themselves as deriving their authority from Delhi This may be called 'the Policy of Ring Defence It was brought out by the fact that conquered territories were given back to Indian rulers e.g Mysore, Nagpore and Oudh etc

This may be called the period of Subordinate **From 1813 to 1858** relations. During this period the policy of Non Intervention was abolished and the idea of British Sovereignty in India was definitely put into practice. In the treaties of this period obedience as well as alliance was required. It includes also Lord Dalhousie's efforts to annex independent states in accordance to his doctrine of Lapse. This had two main objects

(1) Consolidation of the British Dominions.

(2) The extension of the advantages of the British Rule to Native States since it was still felt that a protected Prince was independent as far as Internal government was concerned

Also called the period of subordinate alliances and co-operation

From 1858 onwards During this period the Doctrine of Lapse was given up but the advantages derived from it, it was hoped, could be obtained in other ways. British dominion had been consolidated by arrangements with Native States concerning —

(a) Public Works, (b) Common Postal and Telegraph systems, (c) United efforts to prevent crime

Reforms in revenue, currency and other administrative systems have hitherto been considered as matters fit for persuasive co-operation rather than compulsion. In jurisdiction wide differences prevail from state to state; petty chiefs have only a very limited jurisdiction both in Civil and Criminal cases. Again British subjects are under the power of British Courts.

The principles for interference by the paramount power have been clearly brought out in the history of Mysore. When in 1881, the Raja came of age, it was laid down :—

- (i) That his private income and that of the state should be kept separate.
- (ii) That unless altered by suitable legislative machinery, the established law, rights and usages should be maintained
- (iii) That the judicature should be systematic and independent.
- (iv) That the land Revenue should be fixed and all rights connected with the land be carefully defined.

Native States represent every stage of concession political development viz Tribal, Feudal and constitutional, but in most cases there seems to be an increasing tendency to follow the British mode of administration in Finance, Education, and even in Law. Great importance is attached to the education and training of the future rulers of the Native States e.g. at Indore, Rajkot and Ajmere Colleges. Lord Curzon founded an Imperial Cadet Corp, which is mainly recruited from Chiefs' College.

The existence of the native states is useful in many ways and as Lord Curzon said in his speech at the state banquet at Jaipur in 1902, "Amid the levelling tendencies of the age and the insatiable monotony of Government conduct on a scientific line, they keep alive the traditions and customs, they sustain the virility and save from extinction the picture queness of ancient and noble races. They have an added quality, endearing them to the people, that comes from being born of the people."

CHAPTER X.

LAND REVENUE

In India the whole outlook is agricultural. From this every class is provided for, it is to this that the Government looks for its revenue, the landlord for his rent, the grain merchant for his profits and the labourer and artizan for their wages.

The Land Revenue is a form of Public income derived from immemorial custom.

History In its primary form the Land Revenue was that portion of the cultivator's grain heap which the state annexed for public use and this was practically the only method in force throughout India until the 16th Century. Under the Mughul Empire, especially under Akbar, it underwent a series of reforms. Cash payments were substituted for payment in kind and were if possible fixed for a number of years. A more or less uniform system of accounts was kept. With the break-up of the Mughul Empire the practice of leasing the revenue of large tracts of the country became common. As the Provinces came under British Rule the assessments were gradually

reduced to order, the systems selected being at first adopted according to the varying circumstances of the different districts and becoming more and more crystallized as time went on. However the Government is a rule avoided the enforcement of unnecessary uniformity so that there are considerable differences both in the principle and the method of assessment in different provinces.

It is usual, however, to differentiate the Land Revenue into 'Zamindari' and 'Ryotwari'. The assessment is known as zamindari, where the revenue is imposed on an individual or community owning an estate, and occupying a position similar to that of a land lord. It is known as Ryotwari where the revenue is imposed on individuals who are the actual occupants of holdings. The former of these prevails in Northern and Central India and the latter in Bombay, Madras, Assam, and Burma. About 53 per cent of the Land Revenue assessment of British India is zamindari and 47 per cent Ryotwari.

Before the actual settlement is made it is necessary to start with (1) a complete survey of the land to get an exact account of the cultivable land and

The following are the advantages and disadvantages of the Permanent settlement

Advantages (1) The Land Revenue is not liable to fluctuations (2) It avoids the expense and harassment to tenants, which attend every periodical renewal of settlement (3) The zamindars have brought large tracts of land under cultivation (4) Should the zamindar do his duty he is a medium through whom agricultural improvement can be made (5) A rich middle class has been formed

Disadvantages (i) It means an enormous loss to the state of at least $4\frac{1}{2}$ crores annually, (ii) As a result of this the rest of British India pays heavier taxes (iii) The unproductive use of rent by the zamindars The hope that the zamindars will improve their land and methods of agriculture has been falsified, the zamindars as a class spend their wealth in luxury and many are absentees

Disadvantages (1) The expense and harassment of assessment work which has to be renewed of temporary every 20 or 30 years (2) The neglect of cultivation on the approach of the revision of the settlement, in order to

remove the further assessment, (3) The people are not the proprietors of the land they cultivate, (iv) Investment of capital in improvement is discouraged

But settlement is becoming more and more efficient so that there is not so much annoyance as formerly. The State guarantees fruits of private improvement to individuals

The amount of gross revenue raised on the Land was estimated in 1920-21 at £23,797,800 out of a total from all sources in the same year of £104,423,000. This compares very favourably with the £34,000 (0) of land revenue recorded as having been raised annually from a smaller Empire by Aurangzeb

The indebtedness of the Indian farmer like

the rest of his brothers elsewhere, is

Agricultural indebtedness and its remedies roughly speaking due to pressure of population on the soil, inheritance laws and intensive cultivation etc

The Indian money lender in turning the miseries of the poor to his own advantage is similar to those in other countries. The Indian money lender may be regarded from two points of view (i) As a capitalist without whose aid agriculture

could not be carried on, (2) As a usurer making profits from the miseries of the poor In reality he combines both As society is at present organized he fills an absolute gap and is a rural necessity He exacts a reward far in excess of his service Unfortunately in India the indebtedness of the peasant is very common and great In some districts more than half the ryots have to borrow even their seed grain, and often three quarters are in debt It is said that the modern Indian peasant is more deeply in debt than his forefathers, but it is difficult to prove However several causes have contributed to this Cost of living has increased The great increase in the price of the agricultural produce and consequently in the value of the land have greatly increased the borrowing power of the cultivator And as he is ignorant he tends to borrow not according to his capacity The rate of interest charged is also excessively high But easy credit gives to reckless borrowing and thus plunges the peasant still further into debt unless accompanied with proper safeguards

The following two are the suitable remedies for ameliorating the condition of the poor, igno-

rant and yet recklessly borrowing peasantry of India

(i) The first consists in reducing the peasant's capacity to borrow and depends chiefly upon his being able to pledge his land as security for debt. The power to mortgage his land which has been conferred upon him combined with the increased value of land has caused a great increase in indebtedness. "where a peasant has learned the full le sons of thought and prudence, the full use of credit and capital applied productively, where the conditions of the society and the demands of the state are such as not to compel resort to the money lender, the power of mortgage to the full can hardly be an error. In other conditions it is possible that such power may lead to increased indebtedness and to a degradation of the agriculture and his art." These need being inculcated in our peasantry. As to credit, the peasant must have it, and as the experience of France proves if he can not get it cheap he will have it dear.

(ii) A complete solution of the problem of ~~Cooperation~~ agricultural indebtedness appears to lie in some system which will provide the peasant with facilities for borrowing at a low rate of interest, and at the same time devise safeguards against his in-born tendency to borrow imprudently. These conditions are satisfied by the Co-operative Credit associations at first started in Germany. These depend upon the thrift, prudence and self-restraint of the people themselves. In 1904 Government allowed their organization and registration by passing an Act and appointing officers for that purpose.

A bank is started by some selected persons ~~method of~~ in a locality, no body taking up more working than a fixed number of shares. The bank lends money in its locality. The managers of the bank work gratuitously and the dividends rarely exceed the market rate of interest. Loans are given to members for the purchase of plough, cattle and other needs.

This is very advantageous in as much as all are known to each other and can exercise

restraint upon others; they also have an educative influence in matters of thrift, association and self-help.

They are divided into:—(1) Central Societies, which raise loans and deposit on behalf of the representatives of other smaller societies, as they can better command the confidence of the public.

- (2) Rural societies in which at least $\frac{2}{3}$ ths of the members must be agriculturists.
- (3) Urban societies in which at least $\frac{2}{3}$ ths of the members must be non-agriculturists.

The rural societies work with an unlimited liability while the urban ones have a limited liability. They enjoy the following privileges.

- (1) Next to hind revenue a society's claim is considered prior to that of other creditors.
- (2) Free audit of the accounts is allowed.
- (3) They enjoy exemption from income tax on profits or dividends, from stamp duty of documents and from registration fees etc.

These societies are a bright feature in India's agricultural improvement. They have certain defects but they are not irremediable. Education and fellow feeling will improve matters. At present the societies number 32, 439, with 1, 235, 891 primary societies, with a working capital of Rs 17,55,32,000

CHAPTER XI.

Other sources of revenues

(2) Opium in British territory is grown by licensed ryots, cultivation being permitted in Bengal and U P

Opium Revenue Opium grown in Native States is called the Malva Opium and enters British territory upon payment of Rs 600/- per chest for export and Rs 700 for home consumption. Most of the export is to China. By agreement with that government the export of opium to that country will cease within a few years. In the year ending 1920 21, estimated revenue was £ 2,942,000

(3) A salt duty of Re 1-4 has been levied upon all salt imported or produced in India. For 1919-20 the revenue from salt amounted to £ 3,914,300

(4) The customs duties are levied only for revenue purposes. On the long list scheduled for that purpose the general rate was made 7½ p c in the year 1916-17, instead of 5 p c. Cotton goods in general were left at 2½ p c as usual, a duty of 1 p c on iron and steel. Railways materials, machinery, gold bullion and coin animals, books and ships are allowed free. There is also an exporting duty of 2½ p c per maund over rice. The revenue from this source in 1920-21 was £ 17,000,700

(5) Excise revenue is derived from licensed distillers fees and duties for the sale of intoxicating drugs and liquors. The revenue under this head in 1920-21 amounted to £ 10,340,600

(6) Revenue is derived from two kinds of stamps: ~~stamps~~

- (i) Judicial and court fee stamps,
- (ii) On transfer of property contracts and commercial transactions, the revenue amounted to £ 7,007,500

(7) Since 1917 all incomes, excepting those of less than Rs 1000 a year, are charged at the following rates

Income Tax

From 500 to 999 nine	pies per rupee
„ 10000 to 24 999 nine „ „	
„ 25,000 upward one anna „	

Income from land and agriculture are also exempt. Revenue from this source amounted to £ 11,30,000. Over and above this there is also a surplus income tax.

- (8) Registration department yields nearly 30 lacs
- (9) Forests yield a revenue of over 1 crore
- (10) Provincial Rates—They are levied for roads, schools, and dispensaries only. In 1906 the cess for protective canals, railways, the district post, and the salaries of village officials being abolished. The rates are one anna in the rupee of the

rent on the estimated value of land
It amounted to 70 lacs

- (11) Revenue from other heads amounted to £ 5,169,800
- (12) Besides these Posts and telegraphs, Railway, irrigation works, public and military works, Mint and Receipts by Civil Department yield a large revenue (vide page 74)
- (13) On 31st March 1920, the National debt of India was 566 crores This figure represents nearly Re 24 per head of India's population Were it not for India's contribution of 150 crores to the expenses of the Great War the National Debt must have remained 129 9 crores

The details of the Budget are set out in the following table—

	Accounts 1918-1919	Revised Estimates 1919-20	Budget Estimate 1920-21.
REVENUE			
Principal Heads of Revenue	£.	£.	£
Land Revenue . . .	21,089,944	22,057,400	23,711,200
Opium .. .	3,289,111	2,040,800	2,042,000
Salt	4,277,489	3,800,700	4,458,400
Stamps	6,018,976	7,233,100	7,507,500
Excise	11,537,618	12,718,900	13,40,000
Customs	12,420,441	14,319,500	17,000,700
Income Tax	7,758,463	15,005,700	11,310,400
Other Heads	4,316,273	6,003,700	5,169,800
Total Principal Heads	70,428,914	81,322,800	85,009,000
Interest	3,829,422	4,235,100	3,715,000
Posts and Telegraph	6,342,176	5,906,800	6,184,200
Mint	1,826,814	1,669,700	1,670,500
Receipts by Civil Depots	2,094,802	2,157,400	2,086,000
Miscellaneous	6,728,458	1,862,800	6,276,800
Railways, Net Receipts	24,962,239	21,007,300	21,774,700
Irrigation	5,346,507	5,843,000	5,945,200
Other Public Works	347,649	363,500	371,300
Military Receipts	2,349,972	1,771,000	1,519,500
Total Revenue	124,257,744	129,850,600	134,252,600
Deficit	3,820,409	14,308,100	.
Total	127,078,153	144,218,700	134,252,600

EXPENDITURE.

Direct Demands on the Revenues	11,787 122	12,082,900	13,410,100
Interest	8 127,000	8,934,200	8,192,500
Posts and Telegraphs ..	3,974,954	4,725,300	6,073,700
Mint	305,810	356 200	254,800
Salaries and expenses of Civil Departments ..	23,688,215	25,818,300	28,250,200
Miscellaneous Civil Charges	6,292 776	6,564,900	8,634,700
Finance Relief and Insurance	1,000 000	1,229 700	1,000,000
Railways Interest & Miscellaneous charges	14,794,142	14,590 200	15,284,200
Irrigation	3,946 820	4,221 200	4,381,400
Other Public Works	5 651 871	6 857 300	9,074,100
Military Services	46,830,210	55,769,300	41,519,500
Total Imperial and Provincial expenditure	125,999,022	144,168,500	136 076 000
Add—Provincial Surplus, that is, portion of allotments to Provincial Governments not spent by them in the year	1,143,955	834,000	..
Deduct—Provincial Deficits that is, portion of Provincial expenditure defracted from Provincial Balances	64,524	753,800	3 827,000
Total expenditure charged to Revenue surplus ..	127,078,153	144 218,700	132 248 000 2,004 000
Total	127,078 153	144,218,700	134 232 600

Hence we may pause for a while to study for *Directions of* ourselves the various items in the *Reform* budget and see for ourselves its net results on the system of British administration in India. It is to be noted that the administration in India is too costly, but much can be achieved by substituting Indian agency in place of the British one. Progress and Reform undoubtedly mean greater expenditure and India, poor as she is, must pay the price for the advantages, she derives from the western methods of administration. But the machinery of the Government is very costly in several parts and a pruning knife to cut it down is absolutely essential.

Even when this becomes an accomplished fact, money will still be required to promote social and economic reforms. The question of mass education alone will require crores of rupees annually. With a reformed and popular government expenditure will never decline, it will on the other hand increase. However, this new investment will return to the people a hundred fold in increased prosperity and improved well-being.

This will perhaps, necessitate additional taxation if the natural growth of revenue combined with economy does not yield enough funds

The chief sources of revenue then will have to be customs, import and export duties, heavier taxes upon larger incomes and inheritance tax. Moreover the powers of increased taxation and expenditure need to be brought under popular control. There must be further decentralization of finances and the resources of local bodies shall have to be supplemented by grants in aid or by large assignments so that more may be spent on the promotion of sanitation, village public works, medical relief and education.

CHAPTER XII

FAMINES IN INDIA

India is mainly an agricultural country the ^{History of Famines} vast majority nearly two thirds of whose inhabitants depend directly or indirectly on agriculture, which depends on rainfall, and when rain fail the whole country is calamitously effected. The

suspension of rains means the suspension of labor, and the suspension of labor means a drying up of the sources of subsistence, and this is followed by distress and destitution. The greater part of India is liable to famines but the country is so big that the famine is never ubiquitous.

Little is known regarding the famines, which devastated India before the establishment of the British Rule in India. This phenomenon may be partly explained by the fact that in the ancient and mediæval periods there was comparatively very little pressure on the soil, some of the lands were well nigh virgin, the country abounded in forest, and added to these there was practically little trade with foreign countries in agricultural products of the country. Then again the lands colonized in the earliest periods, owing to constant foreign invasions, were given up in the mediæval times, and this partly explains the fact that the soil of the Punjab and Gujarat is comparatively richer even today.

However the first great famine took place in 1769, 70. After that many failures of rain occurred but there was no systematized action by

the government for their relief. The first attempt was made in 1861, but when the great Orissa famine occurred in 1866, foundations were laid of the humane policy, which has ever since guided the government in dealing with famines.

After the great famine of 1876, and, '78 a commission under Sir R. Strachey was appointed by Lord Ripon to enquire into the whole question. Their enquiries reduced the administration of famine relief into a system. They laid down general principles for the treatment of famines and suggested measures of a preventive character.

When the commission of 1880 sat, a Provisional famine code was framed and the modern policy of famine administration was determined.

In 1899 another serious famine occurred and a commission under the presidency of Sir Anthony MacDonnell was appointed to re-examine the whole question of measures for the relief and prevention of famines.

The result of the labors of these three commissions has been the preparation of elaborate codes of instructions for every province laying

down the principles to be followed Large tracts of country have been brought under cultivation The isolated and out of the way parts of the country have been connected with each other by railways and hence the districts in which there is a dearth of food supply, can obtain it from other places where it is abundant Irrigation works have been extended on a liberal scale to develop the food supply, and their construction is encouraged by the government The officers of the government as well as private gentlemen have done excellent work in relieving the distress of suffering humanity Since 1896 India has suffered from repeated failures of rains *but the distress has neither been universal nor much*

Famine Insurance It was not until 1874 when Lord Northbrook was Viceroy that it was recognized that since famines could not be looked upon as abnormal calamities it was essential that provisions against the grave financial obligation should be made as one of the ordinary charges of the state The practical result of such a plan would be to restore in times of prosperity resources by means of which it

would be possible to meet the inevitable requirements of the future.

The original scheme was modified and it was decided that a sum set aside as an insurance against famine might be spent on Railways and canals in districts liable to serious draught. The policy has been much misunderstood and misrepresented. The critics have supposed that a separate fund was created for this purpose but this is an unreasonable and unpractical idea. 'The famine insurance fund' of which people have often talked never existed.

When there is distress caused by famine the Government exempts the landholders from paying the revenue and helps the tenants with "Taqvi" loans and supplies them agricultural capital. Cooperative societies have also helped a good deal in saving the situation.

CHAPTER XIII.

Local and Municipal Government.

Among the phenomena, which India presents to the student of social institutions in ancient India none are more interesting and important than its village communities. The constitution and form of these have not been exempt from the general laws of progress and decay, but the characteristic features of Indian village life have been handed down with extraordinary pertinacity from a distant past. This has riveted the attention and impressed itself on the imagination, of many observers of social structure. Writing of the same, Sir Charles (afterwards Lord) Metcalf said —

‘ They seem to last where nothing else lasts. Dynasty after dynasty tumbles down, revolution succeeds revolution, Hindu, Pathan, Moghal, Maratha, Sikh, English are all masters in turn, but the village communities remain the same. In times of trouble they arm and fortify themselves. When a hostile army passes through the country the village communities collect their cattle within their walls, and let the enemy pass unprovoked.

If plunder and devastation be directed against them, and the force employed be irresistible, they flee to friendly villages at a distance, but when the storm has passed, they return and resume their occupations."

"A generation may pass away, but the succeeding generation will return."

"This union of village communities, each one forming a separate little state in itself, has, I conceive, contributed more than any other cause to the preservation of the people of India through all the revolutions and changes, which they suffered, and is in a high degree conducive to their happiness and to the enjoyment of a great portion of freedom and independence."

The typical Indian village has its central residential site, with an open space for a pond and a cattle stand. Stretching around this median lie the village lands consisting of a cultivated area and (very often) grounds for grazing and wood cutting. The inhabitants of such a village pass their life in the midst of these simple surroundings, wedded together in a little community with its own organization and govern-

ment, which differ in character in the various types of villages, its body of detailed customary rules, and its little staff of functionaries, artizans and traders Mr B H Baden Powell divides the Indian villages into two classes —(1) The Ryotwari, where the revenue is assessed on individual cultivators This is prevalent outside Northern India, (2) The joint or Landlord village system, common to the Punjab, United Provinces and North Western Frontier Provinces where the revenue is assessed on the village as a whole The village government was originally by the panchayat or group of heads of superior families

The village organization has always incorporated its customary staff of functionaries, artizans, and traders, all of whom exercise their vocations as a matter of caste and heredity, and were originally renumerated by lands or fixed fees for their services to the community and members A more important village functionary is the patwari, who keeps the village accounts, showing the ownership of holdings and the payments due to government or to a landlord, maintains the village map, and is generally the scribe of the community Lastly comes the Chowkidar

The Indian village plays a large part in the revenue administration, and its officers are mostly remunerated by fixed salaries. The position of the village headmen is most important in Madras, Bombay and Burma. In Madras, besides being responsible for the collection of revenue and its remittance to the taluk treasury he can as a village magistrate try petty cases, and must maintain law and order in his village, applying for assistance to higher authorities if necessary and reporting the occurrence of crimes and the movement of criminal gangs, while as village Munsiff he acts as a petty civil court. In Bombay the police and revenue posts are different persons, but often the same individual holds the twofold position. The police patel supervises the village police and keeps the magistrate informed of all matters connected with crime and police, and with the health and general condition of the village. The revenue patel is concerned with revenue affairs. The *lembhikars* of Northern India, though exclusively revenue officials, are bound to give information of the occurrence of crimes.

While the Hindus had thus for many ages a system of village self government, neither they

nor their Mohammedan conquerors succeeded in evolving a local administration. Magasthenee gives the following description of a large Hindu town in the third century before Christ —

‘ Those who have charge of the city are divided into six bodies of five each. The members of the first look after everything relating to Industrial arts. Those of the second attend to the entertainment of foreigners. The third consists of those who enquire into births and deaths to keep regular watch. The fourth class superintend trade and commerce, its members have charge of weights and measures and see that the products are sold by public auction. The fifth class supervises manufactured articles, which they sell by public notice. The sixth consists of those who collect the tenths of the prices of articles sold ’.

These persons were servants of the king and Manu urges upon the appointment of Superintendents to supervise the work of all these five bodies.

In the Moghul Empire each considerable Mohammedan town was governed by an officer, Period styled the *lotual*, who was the

late currency, excise duties and price. The rich were not to be allowed to take more than they required for their consumption. He was to regulate weights and measures. He was to take over charge of property of the deceased dying without heirs. He was to keep separate wells for men and women. Women were not to ride on horseback. No ox or buffalo or horse or camel was to be slaughtered and slaves could not be sold. No woman was to be allowed to burn herself on the funeral pyre of her husband against her inclinations, nor a criminal deserving of death was to be impaled, nor any one under the age of twelve to be circumscribed. He was also to prevent the pest of dishonest persons, with caution, and not to molest god fearing men. Besides other things he was also to locate a cemetery out side of and to the west of the city.

The Municipalities of British India

The system of municipal administration in India is exotic and comparatively of recent introduction. The presidency towns had some form of municipal administration first under Royal

Charters and later under a statute in 1723. An act passed for the purpose in 1842 for Bengal remained in operative and was followed by an Act for the whole of Bengal. Under this act and subsequent provincial acts a large number of municipalities were formed in all provinces. The Acts provided for the appointment of commissioners and authorized them to levy certain taxes, but most of the commissioners were nominated and thus from the point of view of self government they proved a failure. In 1870 Lord Mayo's government, in their Resolution of that year introducing the system of provincial Finance, referred to the necessity of taking further steps to bring local interest and supervision to bear on the management of funds devoted to education, sanitation, medicine charity and local public works. The Acts passed by the various provinces during the years 1871 and 1874 extended the elective principle, but excepting in C P it nowhere worked well. In 1881-1882 Lord Ripon's government issued orders, which had the effect of greatly extending the principle of self government. Consequently the various Act passed in 1883 1884 greatly altered the constitution powers and functions of municipal bodies, a wide extension being given to elective system, by which

independence and responsibility were conferred on the committees of many towns by permitting them to elect a private citizen as chairman. Arrangements were also made to increase municipal resources and financial responsibility by transferring some local items capable of development to these bodies. Besides these, in some provinces, there are "notified areas," which are governed in accordance to some portions of Municipal Act by nominated committees. These may be regarded as embryo municipalities.

The establishment of Boards for dealing with local affairs in rural areas is a recent development. Until 1858 no such boards existed, though some voluntary subscriptions were raised for the purpose of improving the rural areas. In the years 1865 and 1869 Madras and Bombay passed laws to raise cess on land for the purpose. The year 1871 witnessed a wide development of legislation for local administrative purposes, partly the result of Lord Mayo's Decentralization scheme. Various Acts were passed in the different provinces providing for the levy of rates and the constitution of local boards, in some cases with an elected element, to administer the funds. The whole policy was

reorganized in accordance with the policy of Lord Ripon's government. Under the orders of 1881-2 the existing local committees were to be replaced by a system of boards extending all over the country. The lowest administrative unit was to be small enough to secure local knowledge and interest on the part of each member of the board, and the various minor bodies were to be under the control of a general District board and to send delegates to a District council for the settlement of measures common to all. The non-official element was to preponderate and the elective principle was recognized, as in the case of municipalities, while the resources and financial responsibility were to be increased by transferring the items of provincial revenue and expenditure. The conditions being not uniform, a large discretion was allowed to local governments.

In 1900 there were 742 District municipalities in British India excluding

Number of District municipalities upper Burma, British Bengal, and Ajmere, and they contained

14 million inhabitants. The average population of a municipal town was less than 19,000. Only 19 towns have more than 100,000 inhabitants, and some of these are in U P. The total number

of municipalities have not shown any marked increase in the last twenty years.

The municipal government is vested in a municipal body composed of municipal commissioners or as they are called in Madras and Bombay, municipal councillors. The body has the custody of funds and property. The property consists of public buildings, streets, towers, dianas, tanks, walls, other sources of water supply, markets, and slaughter houses. In almost all the municipalities some of the commissioners are elected and the rest nominated. The proportion varies from province to province. The representation in large municipalities is by wards or classes or community or by the. Voters must be male residents not below specified age and property or status qualification are generally laid down. The maximum period of office is three years in all cases. The chairman and vice chairman are generally chosen from among the members.

The principal servant of the municipality is a paid secretary, whose functions correspond to those of a town clerk in England.

It was the policy of Lord Ripon's government to substitute outside control for inside interference in municipalities.

pal affair. This control is in general exercised through the collector of the District and the commissioner of the Division. They may provide for the performance of any duty, which the commissioners neglect, and may suspend them in case of incompetence, default, or abuse of powers. Special control is exercised over finance and appointments. No loans can be raised without Government sanction, and generally speaking municipal budgets, and alterations in taxation, require the sanction of the local government. According to the recommendations of the Decentralization commission they have been given some more powers.

Octroi duties are by far the chief sources ~~Municipal Revenue~~ of revenue. They have many disadvantages but they are taken to limit the tax to articles actually consumed in a town and to prevent it from becoming a transit duty. Articles of food are the most important class of goods subject to octroi duties.

In towns where the system of octroi is not prevalent a tax on houses and land is levied. Also taxes on professions and trades, and on animals and vehicles, are levied, besides a water tax in some

municipalities. Tolls on roads and ferries and lighting and conservancy contribute to the receipts in most provinces. Leaving out the presidency towns average incidence of municipal taxation in British India was Re 2 25 per head of municipal population. Other sources of revenue are municipal lands and buildings, education and medical fees, receipts from markets and slaughter houses.

Municipal functions are classified under the

Municipal Functions heads of public safety, health, convenience and instruction.

Within these heads the duties are many and varied. The principal nominal functions of municipalities now are the construction, upkeep, and lighting of streets and roads, and the provision and maintenance of public and municipal buildings; the preservation of the public health, principally with reference to the provision of medical relief, vaccination, sanitation, drainage and water supply, and measures against epidemics, and education, particularly primary education. Loans are generally raised for big works.

The corporations of Presidency towns occupy the Presidency a special position and are constituted under special Acts. The executive power is vested in the chairman

as in case of Calcutta and Madras (Act 1899) or in the Corporation as in Bombay. However the Corporations reserve the right of fixing the rates of taxation and other general functions, for which almost all of them have committees appointed for different purposes. They possess much wider powers than the municipalities, and render unique service to the densely populated towns.

The functions assigned to these Boards are District and very similar to those assigned to Local Boards municipalities in Urban areas. The system of rural local government in the various provinces differ widely. In conformity with original orders the Madras organization provides for those grades of local officers. Throughout that Province important villages and groups of villages are organised as "Unions," each controlled by a Paanchayat. They levy a light tax on houses and spend it on sanitation. Then there are the Taluk Boards, to manage the local works in that section. And finally there is the District Board with general control over the local ones. In other Provinces there are no Taluk Boards, to manage the local works in that section. And finally there is the District Board with general control over the local ones. In other Provinces there are no Taluk or Sub-

District Boards excepting in C. P. while Burma and Baluchistan have nothing of the sort

Excepting in the N. W. F. Province, there **Elective Principle** is a considerable proportion of the elected members

The various Acts have left it to the Local **Chairman** Government to decide whether the Chairman of the Board shall be elected or nominated. But in practice excepting in Madras and C. P. the Collector is chosen. Excepting in Madras, where the Boards exercise independent authority, they are in other provinces very similar to agencies of the District Board, with limited powers and resources.

The decentralization commission noticing **Sub-District Boards** the failure of these Boards excepting in Madras and Assam put forward proposals to grant them independent resources, separate spheres of duty, and large responsibilities. The country as a whole has always insisted upon a further development of this feature of administration. However it means a consciousness of civic responsibilities and a greater interest on the part of the population.

The greater part of the revenue of these **Revenue and expenditure** Boards is derived from a cess, which they are empowered to levy

and which does not exceed one anna in the Rupee. It is generally collected along with the Revenue. Since 1905 the government has been giving a special contribution calculated at the rate of 25 p c of that income, besides other grants by the local government.

The total number of municipalities in India
 The Present position was 725 in 1921, and more than 17 million people lived within the municipal limits. Of the municipal commissioners 54 per cent were elected, 13 per cent were ex officio and 33 per cent were nominated members. The non officials taken as a whole stand in the ratio of 5 to 1.

The municipalities derive two-thirds of their income from taxation, the principal items being the house and land tax. In 1921 it amounted to over 20 per cent of the total income. Octroi produced 17 per cent and the next was water rate, which yielded 11 per cent. Other items of revenue were proceeds of municipal lands and buildings, which in 1917 yielded 17 percent of income. The total income taken together amounted to

over £6 million sterling but the average was only £5,000 This is small

The total expenditure amounted to between £5 million and £6 million sterling Of this 17 and 14 per cent respectively was shown under the headings of conservancy and public works, water supply and drainage cost 16 per cent, while education and medical relief cost 7 per cent respectively

In 1917 18 there were altogether 200 District Boards with 539 sub district boards and 639 union committees The population under them was 213 millions Of the members 50 per cent were elected, the rest were either nominated or ex officio

Their income amounted to £8 million The average income of a District Board with its sub district Boards was £26,000 The principal objects of expenditure were construction and maintenance of public works, which amounted to £2 millions, education cost £2 millions and medical relief amounted to £ 1 a million

The matter has long attracted considerable

The Outlook

attention both in the Indian press as well as outside. For the preservation of Indian National life village autonomy seems to be one indispensable element. The Government resolution clearly states that the object of local self government is to train the Indian people in the management of their own affairs. This clearly means that political education must take precedence over departmental efficiency. It means that people must realize their civic responsibilities and avail themselves of rights offered and discharge their own duties. We might remember that India is mainly a country of the villages and it is there alone that national life can be evolved. Granted an ideal village most of the ordinary pin pricks of daily life will at once disappear. The Government is ready and willing to help the growth of these institutions and it is up to us all that we should avail ourselves of those.

CHAPTER XIV.

India's Trade

India is chiefly an agricultural country, its characteristics for seventy-two per cent of its people are directly dependent on

agriculture for their means of livelihood. Consequently the prosperity of the country is largely determined by the character of the monsoon rains. An area which grows larger every year is protected by irrigation, and the extension of these works, with the increased resisting power of the people and the growth of manufacturing industry, is expected to make the people immune from the shock of such famines as those of 1896-97 and 1899-1900. That this faith is well founded is proved by the remarkable strength with which the population have lately withstood the acute failure of crops, almost throughout the land, in 1918-19, coming as it did after the country had largely been drained of supplies for the armies and the allied nations. But many of the irrigation works, such as tanks and wells, depend, for their replenishment. Consequently the trade of the year is mainly determined by the rains, which decide the export trade and the consequent purchasing power of the people. Another feature which arises from these conditions is that the imports are mainly of manufactured goods and the exports of produce. The imports of manufactures in pre-war days chiefly came from the United Kingdom, whose exporting power was

seriously diminished by the diversion of the energies of the people to the war, and has for the time been still further impaired by the Industrial confusion in Great Britain following the war

India's trade until the 19th century was concerned with commodities of **General** very high value. The exports were spices, precious stones, muslins and fine textiles. The imports were gold, silver, copper and coin-ware. The great expansion has come since 1857. After that date improvements have been rapid. The construction of railways was pushed on rapidly. Roads were constructed and irrigation canals commenced. The accommodation and facilities in the ports were improved. The fiscal system was refined and simplified and various other administrative improvements were taken in hand. But the sea voyage kept freights high and often destroyed the cargo. The opening of the Suez canal in 1869 reduced the voyage from 100 to 25 days. The iron steamer also began to make progress at this time. This reduction in time of transit was of the first importance to Indian trade. It is due to contemporaneous linking of the ports with the interior

and in every direction externally which accounts for the enormous expansion of commerce since 1870

But the fall in the price of silver introduced new difficulties. The fluctuations in the price of silver made the exchanges unstable and thus rendered trade speculative and embarrassed the government. This was remedied in 1893 when the mint was closed.

With the expansion of trade its nature and progress and character have been entirely altered. One feature has remained permanent gold and silver still continue to flow into India. This is due to the habits of the people. The precious metals are hoarded and used for ornaments. The standard of living is low and a large portion of payments for exports takes the form of bullion.

A large part of the export in pre war days went to the continent of Europe, and that market was closed by the war. It has not yet been re opened in a practical sense, but on the other hand a large increase of trade, both export and

import, with the United States arose. The share of the whole British Empire in Indian overseas trade last year fell to 51 per cent compared with 54 per cent in 1919, and the share of the United Kingdom rose to 37.7 per cent from 35.3 per cent. Trade during 1919 was greatly affected by the famine following the failure of rains in 1918.

The total foreign trade of British India in Figures for the year 1921 attained the unprecedented figure of Rs 503 crores against Rs 427 crores in the preceding year and of Rs 476 crores in 1913-14. The imports were valued at Rs 208 crores, an increase of Rs 39 crores or 23 per cent over the figures of the previous year, while the exports including re-exports were valued at Rs 327 crores and exceeded the previous year's by Rs 73 crores or 29 per cent.

The Import trade of India consists of the following —

(1) *Cotton manufactures*—which were Cotton manufactures valued at Rs 59 crores in 1919-20, showing an enormous shrinkage in the quantity of imported twist and yarn, and a small diminution in piece goods.

(2) Sugar imports were valued at Rs. 21,84 lacs, showing an increase in value Sugar. by 42 per cent

(3) The total quantity imported amounted to 427,000 tons ~~iron and Steel~~ against 181,100 tons in 1918-19 or an increase of 135 per cent, but the value of imports on account of a lower level of prices showed an increase of 81 per cent and amounted to Rs 16,33 lakhs. Of the total quantity purchased 269,300 tons came from the United Kingdom, and nearly half of this amount from the United States, and the rest was made up from Germany, Belgium, Japan and other countries.

(4) The increasing quantities of copper, brass, bronze, aluminium, zinc, lead are beginning to be imported

(5) *Railway plant and Rolling stock*—The total imports amounted to 9,015 lacs. In this connection it may be pointed out that the share of America increased from 2 to 3 per cent in the year 1920-21.

(6) The imports of machinery of all kinds, including belting in the year 1920-21 amounted to Rs 9,18 lacs, ~~Machinery~~

showing an increase by 64 per cent over previous figures of Rs 3,72 lacs. The value of Jute Mill Machinery imported by Bengal alone amounted to 1,18 lacs.

(7) The total quantity of mineral oil imported amounted to 144 millions ^{Mineral Oils} gallons in the year 1920-21, showing an enormous increase in the figures for previous years and was valued at Rs 6,62 lacs as against 1,06 lacs in 1818-19

(8) In the year 1819-20, 2,343,000 lbs of ^{silk} raw silk were imported from China, while Rs 5,92 lakhs worth of manufactured silk was imported

(9) The total value of the imports of ^{Hardware} hardware was Rs 4,37 akhs in 1918-20, showing a growing demand for domestic hardware

Nearly 9,925 cars were imported in the ^{Motor Cars and} year 1919-20 valued at Rs 2,63 ^{Motor Cycles} lakhs

The number of Motor cycles imported was 2,332 and valued at 17 lakhs.

(10) Then there are chemicals, drugs and medicines, liquors valued at 3,37 lakhs in 1919-20, provisions valued at Rs. 2,91 lakhs, paper and pasteboard valued at Rs 2,34 lakhs, wood pulp, salt and others

(11) These include all stores purchased on Government stores Government account by all departments, but principally by army, Medical Service, Public Works Department, and Government worked Railways In 1919-20 the stores were valued at 13,73 lacs

(12) Besides these a number of other articles such as flour, pulse and grain, spices, instruments, matches, tobacco, glass ware, fruit and vegetables, dyeing and tanning substances, wollen manufactures, apparel wood and timber, paints, seeds, soap etc are also imported varying in value from 3 lacs to one crore nearly annually.

CHAPTER XV

THE EXPORT TRADE

The value of the exports of Indian merchandise in 1919 was the highest on record and

amounted to Rs 309 crores, an increase of 29 per cent over the pre-war year. The increase was due to rise in prices.

The principal articles of export in 1919-20

Striking features in order of importance were (1) Cotton, raw and manufactured, amounting to 86 crores, showing an increase of 14 per cent, (3) hides and skins, raw and tanned amounting to 36 crores as against 19 crores in the preceding year, (4) Seeds were valued at Rs 26,27 lakhs, showing an increase by 134 per cent over the figures of preceding year, (5) Tea was valued at Rs 20,56 lakhs and showed an increase of 16 per cent, (6) Grain, pulse and flour were valued at Rs 15 crores showing a phenomenally low decrease since the early seventies, (7) lac was value at Rs 6,86 lakhs, showing a remarkable increase by 145 per cent over the preceding year (8) Wool raw and manufactured was valued at Rs 4, or lakhs The whole was distinctly from India

Besides these there were other articles

Other articles

The following list is given in order of importance from the year book for 1919-20 —

(1) Oils, Rs 322 lakhs, (2) Metals and ores Rs 2,55 lakhs, (3) Dyes, Rs 2,65 lakhs, (4) Opium, Rs 1,96 lakhs, (5) Hemp raw, Rs 1,89 lakhs, (6) Oil cakes, Rs 1,83 lakhs, (7) Coffee, Rs 1,71 lakhs, (8) Rubber, Rs 1,69 lakhs, (9) Spices, Rs 1,57 lakhs, (10) Manures Rs 1,48 lakhs, (11) Wood, teak, Rs 1,25 lakhs, (12) Paraffin wax, Rs 1,18 lakhs, (13) Foodstuffs, bran and pollards, Rs 1,18 lakhs, (17) Coir, Rs 1,04 lakhs (15) Tobacco, Rs 93 lakhs, (16) Mica, Rs 86, lakhs, (17) Coal and Coke, Rs 83 lakhs, (18) Provisions and oil man's stores, Rs 62 lakhs, (19) Salt petrie, Rs 35 lakhs, (20) Articles exported by post, Rs 2,01 lakhs

The total value of the exports of foreign merchandise, that is, re-exports of imported goods, amounted to Rs 17,78 lakhs, showing an increase of 22 per cent in 1919-20 over the previous year. This was nearly four times the value of the trade in 1913-14 as will be seen from the following table —

Year	Rs
1913-14	4,67,73,000
1918-19	14,53,60,000
1919-20	17,77,80,000

The increase was mainly accounted for by the heavy re exports of sugar to the value of Rs 3,57 lakhs as against Rs 1,66 lakhs in the preceding year. There were also noticeable increases under apparel, carriages, carts, drugs, coffee, glass and glass ware, hardware, machinery, metals and ores, raw, silk, wool manufacture and tobacco, while there was a decrease in piece goods, raw hides, skins, tea and railway plant and rolling stock.

The following table shows the per centage shares of the British Empire and Foreign countries in the total trade of the country in 1919-20

	1913-14	1919-20
United Kingdom	40.7	37.7
Other British Possessions	11.3	13.8
Whole British Empire	52	54
United States	6.2	13.8
Japan	6.4	12.3
All foreign countries	48	49

CHAPTER XVI

COMMUNICATIONS

The modern industrial system is impossible without a good system of communication both by land and sea. Without such a system a country is bound to be divided into a great number of self sufficing units. Means of communication are roads, railways, rivers, canals, ships, telegraph, telephone etc. Roads are of great value for local traffic but in an extensive country such as India they have less value than in a small country such as England. Rivers and canals play a very small part so that for the moving of heavy goods quickly and cheaply railways are an absolute necessity. Telegraphs, and telephones are also necessary for the rapid spreading of information. A complete system of communication will employ all or most of these means.

Experimental lines had been projected previous to 1853. In that year ^{Railways.} Dofhonsie urged the importance of railway communications throughout India. The first line was opened in 1854. There were special difficulties in the way of construction in

India (1) There were no competent engineers in the country and men had therefore to be brought from England (2) These men had no knowledge of Indian conditions, and of the language and as a result much needless expense was incurred in laying down double tracks, and making the construction too solid (3) There was no trained labour and no organisation for collecting materials for such a huge undertaking. (4) Most of the materials had to be imported. (5) Special physical difficulties such as floods and storms damage by insects had to be faced But the great difficulty was to obtain capital.

In 1859 eight companies had been formed These companies were guaranteed 5 p c and given free land The Government was to share any surplus profit half-yearly and to exercise control over the management of the line But no profits were realised owing to heavy expenditure and progress was hindered by lack of experience. After 1857 the necessity for railways was evident But capital could not be obtained without a guarantee Meanwhile the deficit to be made up by the Government was steadily increasing until in 1867 it reached 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs In 1869

the guarantee system was discontinued and a state railway scheme was introduced. In order to make progress more rapid it was decided to build on the metre gauge. But famine and war again reduced the funds available for building and a new system of guarantee was introduced. The new lines were called "State Lines worked by companies". The only real difference between the two systems was that the terms of the new guarantee were more favourable to the government. Under this system 4,000 miles of line were built. The fall in the gold price of silver further hindered the raising of capital but by 1883 the finances of the country had improved and construction went on at a quicker rate. In 1895 the construction of ~~costive~~ strategic railways on the N.W. Frontier ~~and~~ diverted funds. In 1893 the Govt again attempted to work by companies and a rebate system was introduced. This proved unsatisfactory and was revised in 1896, the companies now being offered an absolute guarantee of 3 p.c. or a rebate up to the full extent of the main line's earnings in addition to their own net earnings. The total being limited to 3½ p.c. on the capital outlay.

The Native States also built railways to the extent of 3,000 miles. In 1909 there were 31,500 miles of track open. There are four gauges. The standard (5' 6") had 17,990 miles; metre gauge (2' 6"), 15,181 miles, narrow gauge (2' 0"), 2,926 miles and light railway gauge, (2' 0"), 638 miles. In purchasing the old guaranteed lines, payment was usually made in the form of terminable annuities which became a charge against the revenues of the railways. As these annuities represent not only interest charges but also capital charges, the railway returns appear worse than they are. But during the last few years owing to increasing traffic, the government after paying all expenses has been making a good profit.

India still needs more railway development. There is need for new main lines for opening up the country but at the same time there is a pressing need for branch and feeder lines for the existing main lines. Owing to the constantly increasing traffic it is necessary also to improve the existing lines by providing further extension of goods accommodation, by laying double track and by greatly increasing the amount of rolling stock.

But the government is still faced by the difficulty of raising sufficient capital

The government now exercises control over the railways by means of the Railway Board appointed in 1905. This body is composed of practical business men who are entrusted with full authority to manage the railways on commercial lines. The Board is placed outside of, but subordinate to the government, and is represented on the Viceroy's Council by the member in charge of the Department of Commerce and Industry. It has two functions

(1) Which includes the preparation of the railway programme of expenditure for the year and discussion of greater questions of railway policy and economy. The final authority for these decisions rest with the government

(2) Which includes the construction of new lines by State agency, the carrying out of new works on open lines, control and promotion of the staff on State lines and the general supervision of the working and expenditure of the companies' lines.

The final authority of these, subject to restrictions, is left with the Board

ADVANTAGES OF RAILWAYS.

- (1) Labour has become much more mobile
Advantages of Railways Thousands now travel annually to the jute fields and tea gardens of Eastern Bengal and Assam and to the rice fields of Burma
- (2) Surplus population in congested areas can move to thinly populated areas where labour only is lacking to obtain good crops

the markets of the world When harvests are bad food can be imported.

(6) Helping the famine relief by enabling large quantities of grain to be promptly carried to the famine area

(7) Foreign trade has greatly developed, The enormous expansion of India's trade is coincident with the building of railways

(8) The development of local industries and commerce has been quickened

(9) Employment has been created for a great number of men In 1904 the railways employed 422,000 men of whom 407,000 were Indians and 15,000 Europeans and Eurasians

Moral Effect has also been very great, Men have been enabled to travel and have thus broadened their outlook on life This makes them more tolerant Railways have also broken down caste to a certain extent as all castes travel together in the same carriage

Development Both passenger and goods traffic have developed very rapidly but the latter more rapidly than the former. The total quantity

of goods carried varies from year to year. Traffic consists chiefly of grain seeds, coal, cotton, jute, salt, sugar and timber. The greatest development of recent years has been the coal traffic. Local traffic has also increased rapidly.

ROADS

The principal roads are of good quality. Subsidiary to these are roads of every degree. The total mileage is considerable though communication is still inadequately provided for in the rainy season. The provision of roads was only seriously undertaken in 1840. But rapid development only took place with the building of railways when the need for good roads to move goods to and from the stations at all times came to be felt. Until 1854 road making was under military boards and progress was extremely slow. In that year Provincial P. W. D. were formed and road making became more methodical. The railways exercised a great influence on the function and character of the new roads. A demand for metalled and bridged communications sprang up. The extension of local government and decentralisation have been followed by a great improvement in local road construction.

Classification. Roads are divided in to two classes —

I.—Metalled (a) With bridges and ferries and drained throughout.

(b) Partially bridged and drained

II.—Unmetalled (a) With bridges and ferries and drained throughout

(b) partially bridged and drained

Maintenance. Most Indian roads are metalled with broken brick (Khoaj) or with Kankar. Cost of building and maintaining roads varies very greatly with the nature of the country through which they pass. Roads are expensive in Bengal owing to the necessity of embankments and the inferior nature of the metalling and also in the hilly parts of Madras and Bombay. Total mileage of metalled roads in 1918 was miles, maintained equally by Govt and local authorities. Unmetalled roads, 136,000 miles nearly all maintained by the local authorities. Statistics are, however, very inadequate.

Rivers. In the north the rivers have always been used for traffic. The Indus, Ganges, Brahmaputra and Irrawaddy are important trade routes.

The Indus is navigable as far as Dehra Ismail Khan and there is traffic on its tributaries. The Ganges is navigable as far as Cawnpore, and the Gagra as far as Fyzabad. Bihar has greater facilities for inland navigation than any other Province. The rivers of the peninsula are of very little importance for navigation.

Canals There is very little traffic on the canals which were constructed primarily for irrigation. To attract traffic a navigable canal must pass through large cities and important trade centres and must be in uninterrupted touch with the sea board or with water ways which form a suitable outlet for produce hence most irrigation canals are useless for navigation. The most important navigable systems of irrigation works are Godavari and Kistna Canals in Madras. The canals are well adapted to boat traffic as they flow through a flat and populous country but navigation barely repays expenses. Navigation only in Bengal Calcutta and Eastern Canals and the Nadia Rivers in the deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra carry a good deal of traffic and are important. The Orissa canal is also important. In the U. P. Upper and lower Ganges canals are navigable. The Buckingham

Canal in Madras is the most important purely as a navigable canal. Outside the deltas canals will never be of much use for communication. It is noticeable that when railways and internal waterways come into competition the traffic always leaves the latter for the former.

CHAPTER XVII

IRRIGATION.

Irrigation is the back bone of an agricultural country like India, and more so in those parts of the country which are either subject to scanty rainfall, such as the deserts of Sindh and the south west Punjab which are practically rainless, or where rainfall is exceedingly irregular such as the Deccan. Then again the cold weather crop is largely dependent upon irrigation.

It is natural, in such conditions, that irrigation in India should have its early history been practised from time immemorial. Consequently wells and tanks have been in use from time immemorial. Even Canals were dug to take off inundation water from the

rivers like Indus. Even the Moghul Emperors constructed canals, but more scientific works for the utilization of surplus water of the rivers are of recent date.

Irrigation Works in India may be divided into three main heads—wells, tanks and canals. Of these the canals are the most enduring monuments to British rule. They have been constructed by direct state agency. The policy of state interference was finally settled during the Vice-royalty of Lord Lawrence.

Besides the Grand Anicut stretching across the former major works in Madras, and a few inundation canals constructed by the Mohammedan and Sikh rulers in the Punjab there were no others worth the name. In southern India Sir Arthur Cotton constructed the upper Anicut across the Coleroon river. He also designed works in the Godavari and Kistna Deltas. In Northern India Sir Pobyn Cantley constructed the great Ganges canal. The Chirib canal in the Punjab ought to be classed as one of the wonders of the world.

The Chenab and the Jhelum canals relieved congestion on older villages and allowed colonization. They irrigate over two million acres. In the Bombay Deccan a few protective works like lake Fife and lake Whiting drawing their water from the Ghats were constructed. In Madras the boldest and most irrigative work was completed by constructing a reservoir at Periyar and carrying that water by means of a tunnel through the intervening hill to the fertile lands starved by want of moisture. But the Deccan Works did not pay and consequently they were ignored for want of funds.

The Irrigation Commission of 1910 made a detailed survey of the condition and laid down a policy for future guidance. They showed that out of an area of 2.26 million acres in the irrigating Provinces 44 million acres were irrigated. Of the total area irrigated 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ million acres was watered by state works and 25 $\frac{1}{2}$ million acres from private works. Including the Native States the area irrigated was estimated at 53 million acres, of which 19 millions was irrigated from canals, 16 millions from wells, 10 millions from tanks, and 8 millions from other

sources. They recommended the construction of works, which would pay and increase the food supply. For Bombay they suggested canals from the storage works; for Madras they recommended the investigation of the Old Tung-bhudra project. They also recommended the construction of other works for C. P. and Bundelkhand.

The charges for irrigation vary from place to place depending on the kind **Irrigation Dues.** of crop, the quantity of water required and the time when it is required, the quality of the soil, the intensity or constancy of the demand and the value of irrigation in increasing the out turn *e. g.* a rate of Rs. 50/- per acre is charged for sugar cane in Poona while in Madras it is Rs. 10 and in the Punjab Rs. Rs. 8/8

Canals are navigable only in the Eastern Bengal.

During the year 1918-19, the total area **Total Area Irrigated.** irrigated by all classes of works in India, excluding the Native States, amounted to just over 25 million acres or about 39,063 square miles. Towards this area

Productive Works contributed 17,314,700 acres, Protective Works 692,300 acres, and Minor Works 7,145,300 acres,

The total capital outlay on Productive Returns under Productive Works up to the year 1920 amounted to Rs 58 crores. This yielded a gross revenue of 742 lakhs and the working expenses were Rs 219 lakhs, leaving a net revenue of Rs 523 lakhs.

The total capital outlay on Protective Works amounted to Rs 1,060 Protective Works lakhs up to 1920, and yielded a net revenue of nearly two lakhs

The total capital outlay on these works at the close of the year 1918 19 Miser Works amounted to Rs 458 lakhs, and the net revenue amounted to Rs 37,96,709 representing a return of 8 9 per cent on capital

CHAPTER XVIII.

ENGLISH EDUCATION IN INDIA.

The East India Company, in its early days of dominion in India, had little inclination to introduce western learning in India. Warren Hastings, who admired Eastern Laws and Literature, wanted to revive the ancient system. To achieve it he set apart a lakh of rupees annually for the purpose. The Court of Directors meant the same in their despatch. However, in 1816, David Hare, an English Watchmaker, joined hands with Raja Ram Mohan Roy to institute the Hindu College for the promotion of western secular learning. The influence of the new institution, though distrusted, grew apace. Fifteen years after it was reported that a taste for English had been widely disseminated and that private schools were springing up. In 1827, the Elphinstone College was founded in Bombay, and in 1841 was founded the Madras Presidency College. In 1835 a new medical college was opened in Calcutta and it did not without some troubles prove a success, specially among the High Class Brahmins. The Christian Missionaries

fired with the humanitarian spirit of Wesley, Wilberforce, and Burke opened several schools in Bengal and Madras, and have since then continuously helped the cause of western education in India.

Macaulay's famous minute of 1835 marked the somewhat tardy acceptance of the new policy by the government of India. The Government, while maintaining neutrality on religious matters, decided to apply the available funds for the promotion of western education through the medium of English. In 1837 English was made the court language, and preference for appointment under government came to be given to English educated youngmen.

An epoch in Indian educational history is marked by Sir Charles Wood's despatch of 1854, which laid emphasis on the importance of primary education. The old idea that 'education would filter down to masses' was discarded. Also in accordance to the despatch was created the Department of Public Instruction and the policy of grants-in-aid was instituted. Another feature of the despatch was an outline of a University system.

resulting in the foundation of the Universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bomhay. Thus the affiliating type of University became the first of Indian educational system.

These Universities have supplied recruits for government service, they ^{Its uses and abuses} have developed backward places, they have accelerated the zeal of Indians for western education and they cost little at a time when money was scarce.

On the other hand the new Universities were corporations of administrators, they were mainly examining bodies. The colleges were fettered by uniformity of prescribed courses, their teachers were denied that freedom which teachers should enjoy, and the students were encouraged to value education for obtaining marketable qualifications. However they were not considered fit tests for public service, and a civil service examination was instituted.

Besides the ¹ chairs for advanced study were also established. The education commission of 1882 further advocated the system of grants in aid. According to Sir Stanley Reed, 'In theory

the decision was correct, but in practice it was irretrievably wrong' The Government, with a desire to save money, accepted the mistaken belief that schools and colleges could be maintained at low fees, which the Indian parent could be expected to pay Thus, in course of time, an unworkable dual system has grown up, and consequently evils have crept in, which can now be eradicated by 'drastic changes and lavish expenditure'

The Universities commission of the year
 The Reforms of 1902-4 resulted in the passing of the
 Universities Act, by which the territorial limits of the Universities were defined and which further resulted in the lightening of the Departmental Control over the colleges and schools and further the Government secured control by inserting clauses by which the Vice Chancellor could nominate 80 p c members to the senate and by getting all proposals and resolutions to be submitted to the Government for adoption or rejection The Commission to some extent dealt with the difficulties of the Indian system but did not deal with the more important question of University Organization,

Figures Inspite of the fact that total expenditure on education in India amounted to £ 12,98,63,073, in 1920-21, the number of literate population was only 30 per thousand (males 186 and females 10 per thousand). The annual assignment now amounts to 214 lakhs, apart from the capital grants

In 1911 late Mr G K Gokhale pleaded in Primary Educa- the Legislative Council for a the mounted system of Compulsory education, but Government was unable to accept it. In recent years, in accordance to new acts, municipalities have been empowered to introduce compulsory education, but provision is also made for exemption of certain classes or cases of persons and also for additional taxation

Secondary and High Schools The policy of the government in this direction has been to maintain a certain number of schools, generally one for each revenue district. The number of such schools in 1918-19 were 1,803 with 534,980 scholars. In more recent years these schools and others recognized by the government have been placed either under the Department of Public Instruction or under Special Boards,

and more practical subjects have been introduced. The Inspector of schools with his staff generally supervises, directs and at times controls the working of the government schools and keeps a watchful eye on all others.

The European Schools are controlled by special Inspectors appointed for that purpose.

Affiliated to the Universities are colleges which the University concerned has the power under the **The Arts Colleges.** Act of 1904 to inspect and regulate. In 1919 there were 146 Arts Colleges in British India, and there were in these 49815 males and 915 female students.

There are eight medical colleges (besides a number of medical schools) with 3,164 students, twenty one law colleges with 6,089 students, a number of agricultural colleges of which two only (Poona and Lyallpur) are affiliated to a University. A research Institute in agriculture was started by Lord Curzon at Pusa in Behar. There are also training colleges for secondary teachers in various parts of India, and normal schools for

the training of vernacular teachers. Very little has been done to provide suitable instruction in commerce, of late the Sydenham College of commerce has been doing good work in this direction. Industrial and Technical institutes are dotted about India and they are generally placed under the Department of Agriculture. Besides these there are also engineering colleges at Roorkee, Sibpur, Poona and Madras affiliated to the Universities. There is also a college of forestry at Dehra Dun.

Of late a number of new residential Universities have been coming into existence. At present the total number of all such Universities both residential and affiliating is ten, but there is cry for more, and some of them are likely to materialize at no distant date.

The administration envisions three grades of service. First is the Indian Administration, Educational Service, the second is the Provincial Branch, and last is the Subordinate service.

General In almost all the branches of the educational service the teachers are very ill-paid and consequently a high standard can not be maintained. Of late the subject has attracted notice and it is hoped that the government will soon see their way to improve their lot.

Again the division of authority between the Department of Public Instruction and the University hampers the evolution of a coherent system of education. The commission of 1917 has also pointed out a number of defects.

CHAPTER XIX

ARMY IN INDIA

We are all aware of the fact that the great sepoy army of India originated out of a small establishment of guards to protect the Company's goods. We are also aware of the fact that the first step of training the Indian soldiers on European model was taken by the French in India. In short the army in India has been an institution of slow growth. It was in 1748, after the

declaration of war with France in 1744, that Major Stringer Lawrence landed at Fort St David to command the forces of the company. He was appointed the first commander-in-chief and developed the Madras army into Madras Fusiliers, similar companies in Bengal and Bombay became the 1st Bengal and 1st Bombay Fusiliers. From this time onwards the company was constantly at war first with the French and then with the Native powers. The Native infantry was similarly organized by Lawrence and Clive.

In 1776, the native armies were reorganized
 Reorganization of 1776. The European troops were 13,000 strong and the natives numbered some 67,000, the infantry being formed into regiments of two battalions each. At the same time cavalry and artillery companies were also raised.

Again in 1857 on the eve of the Indian Mutiny there were in the Bengal Army 21,000 British and 137,000 native troops, in the Madras Army, 8,000 British and 49,000 Native troops, and in Bombay 9,000 British and 45,000 Native troops. However the causes of the mutiny did not lie in the proportion of British to native

troops, but they certainly did lie in the annexation policy of Dalhousie, especially that of Oudh from which the greater part of army was drawn and also interference with the privileges of the sepoy with respect to certain allowances. The final spark was supplied by the new cartridges.

After the Mutiny the Bengal Army almost reorganized after the Mutiny disappeared, and the Madras and Bombay armies were reorganized. The native artillery was abolished with the exception of mountain batteries and some field batteries of the Hyderabad Contingent. The total strength on reorganization was 65,000 British and 140,000 native troops.

During this period the unwarlike element was eliminated, class regiments and class companies were formed and regiments were linked in threes, each group with a regimental centre. Imperial service troops were raised by the chiefs for the service of the paramount power. In 1891 the Staff Corps of the three presidencies were amalgamated, and in 1893 the appointment of Commander in Chief in the Bombay and Madras armies was abolished. The administrative services were

improved, the supply and Transport and the Ordnance and Military Works Services being reorganized.

Reforms received a great impetus during the term of office, as Commander-in-Chief of Lord Kitchener who arrived in India at the end of 1902. There had hitherto been no General Staff in India, all staff work being carried out from the offices of the Adjutant General and the Quartermaster General. The administrative services were under the Military Member of Council, who was independent of the Commander-in-chief and through whom all proposals involving financial expenditure, beyond his very limited power, were to be submitted by the Commander-in-chief. Lord Kitchner wished to remove this obstruction and bring the entire army administration in India under the Commander-in-Chief. Lord Curzon opposed the proposal to abolish the Military Department under the control of the Commander-in-Chief, and his capacity as a member of council was abolished.

Lord Kitchener's work lay in the reorganization of the Army which was not based on war conditions but was scattered in Units from

which formations were organised service Nine Divisions were now formed, in addition to the Burma Division These Divisions were organized for war, and could take the field in tact, leaving behind sufficient troops for internal security

Among these Sikhs and Pathans rank first the fighting both in point of numbers and efficiency in fighting and next are the Gurkhas who are decidedly the best fighters in the Hills, next come the Rajputs scattered over Northern India The Jats are a fine warlike race of Hindus found in the Delhi and Rohtak Districts and adjoining territory Dogras and the Marhattas of the Deccan are also excellent fighting men Brahmins have always kept up their traditional superiority and skillfulness and have always rendered good service

In a despatch by the Commander-in Chief Summary of India, published in July 1919 the efforts in the war while operations of the Indian Army during the war were reviewed It is said that on the outbreak of war, the combatant strength of the Indian Army, including reservists, was 194,000 Indian ranks, enlisting during war for

all branches of service amounted to 791,000, making a total combatant contribution of 985,000. Of this number 552,000 were sent overseas. As regards non-combatants the pre-war strength was 15,000 ; an additional 427,000 were enrolled during the war ; and 391,000 were sent overseas. The total contribution of Indian personnel has thus been 1,457,000 of whom 943,000 have served overseas. Casualties amounted to 106,794, which include 36,696 deaths from all causes. The number of animals sent overseas was 175,000.

In 1919 was appointed another committee under Viscount Esher to inquire *The Esher Report* into the administration and organization of the army in India. The report, which was published in 1920, recommended the diminution of the detailed control exercised by the India office ; the membership of the India council by an officer of high military rank to be abolished, the Military Department Secretary at the India office to be a Deputy Chief of the Imperial General Staff, the Chief, either directly or through him, being the sole responsible military adviser of the Secretary of State ; the Commander-in-Chief in India to be the sole military adviser of the Government,

and to be the administrative as well as the executive head of the Army, the Army Department and the Headquarters staff being consolidated under him

It also recommended that the Defence Committee set up in India during war be continued, a military council be established, and decentralization to be promoted by the formation of four commands, each under an Army Commander graded as a General Officer Commanding-in-chief

It further recommended a liberal and sympathetic treatment of all ranks in the Army in India, and the removal of such grievances as are shown to exist. Also that the existing services be recognized, and the new ones be developed and equipped

The Government of India strongly criticis^{ed} the report and it was also condemned
Criticis^m by a Committee of the India Office
 Indians on the other hand were not satisfied because it did not suggest measures for the Indianization of the army. However none save the minor

administrative recommendations are likely to be carried into effect.

The voluntary movement towards co-operation in the task of Imperial Defence that led to the formation of the force of Imperial Service Troops was initiated in 1887 by an offer made by the Nizam of Hyderabad, whose example was followed by a number of leading Native Princes. The troops, though subject to inspection by British officers, belong to the states. Their armament is the same as that of the Native Army, and in training discipline and efficiency they have reached a high standard of excellence. The total strength of troops is approximately 22,271, towards which twenty-nine states contribute. The troops have rendered good service in several theatres of war.

The corps was founded in 1901, with the object of providing military training for the scions of ruling and noble families. The corps consisted of about twenty youngmen of noble birth, who have been educated at the chiefs' colleges.

The Indian Volunteer Force, which had been in existence for the last 60 years or more, was replaced by the ~~Auxiliary Force~~ Auxiliary Force in 1920. The main object was to train and utilize the European and domiciled community for local purposes and defence. Advisory committees were appointed for laying down general principles of enlistment and prescribing courses of training in accordance to the local conditions.

In accordance to the aspirations of the Indian Territorial Indians the Government has agreed to start Territorial Battalions with a view to organize the almost unlimited man power of the country. This is merely experimental at the outset. Men between the ages of 18 and 30 are to be enlisted for the purpose. The salary and allowances have been fixed as those given to Indian officers and other ranks. This will necessitate the training of Indian officers for the purpose. In this connexion Indians have also been given Honorary King's Commission. It is hoped that the whole will soon materialize, prove a success and enable government to offer better terms and conditions to attract better class of men. From

the reports available it is clear that the experiment has been quite a success.

Since 1903 the squadron has been maintained. In 1913 its position was considerably improved. India contributes her share of £. 100,000 annually for its maintenance.

The East India's Squadron

The Royal Indian Marine has always kept up its high reputation and has creditably shared in all the wars where it was concerned or sent. It is certainly due to England's position that India enjoys complete immunity on sea for such a small payment.

A mere perusal of the Budget will show that expenditure on Army has been constantly increasing until in 1922-23 it amounted to half the Indian revenues. However the retrenchment Committee appointed under Lord Inchcape, which has been busy with its pruning knife all along, has recommended a reduction in the military expenditure by 10 crores of rupees. This will necessitate a reorganisation of the British and Indian battalions on a peace footing. This will

mean a demobilization of all military offices and other works, which have already been budgeted. They have further recommended that the military budget in future should not exceed the sum of Rs 50 crores bearing in mind the question of efficiency and defence.

CHAPTER XX.

THE STATE

Having acquired a knowledge of the conditions of the country in the middle Part Britain of the eighteenth century it should be manifest to everybody that the British have successfully done away with all warring and lawless elements and have established the rule of one power over the whole of the country and have brought almost all the native states under the control, thus securing absolute internal peace to the country. At the same time the fear of English lion has made India immune from foreign aggression. Thus complete security of life and property has been guaranteed. This coupled

with a broader outlook of life as a result of the British rule, has undoubtedly resulted in increased prosperity and well being. The results of the peace that now reigns over the land have been beautifully summarized by Prof. Yadunath Sankai. They are given here in a modified form

- (a) Security of life and property from the suppression of *dacoits* or organized gangs of robbers and other lawless elements has been secured,
- (b) Safety of the roads, in consequence of the extermination of the Thugs and lawless chiefs and the establishment of a regular police, has been guaranteed,
- (c) Peace has fostered an immense increase of population,
- (d) Increase of population has made necessary and peace has made profitable the extension of cultivation and internal commerce. As a result of this the prices of land and agricultural produce have risen, to the benefit of the land lord and the tenant;
- (e) The cost of production has been reduced in proportion to the decrease in the cost

of defence and watching. We no longer need either walled towns or very strongly fortified places to work in Arts or old fashioned ill ventilated houses to board our treasures or riches ;

- (f) Peace has made possible both the accumulation of capital and its profitable investment. In short, it has shaken off the proverbial "shyness of Indian capital",
- (g) The increase of capital has undoubtedly reduced the rate of interest, which otherwise used to be very high ,

Besides the above, the system of British rule has brought about the reclamation of lands given up because of innumerable robber gangs that roamed over the country e. g the Presidency of Bombay, Noakhali and Bakerganj in East Bengal. Then again the Railways, the improved irrigation and navigation canals coupled with cheap postage and telegram systems and the introduction of several modern inventions have raised the standard of life and lastly the constant contact and study of western authors has fostered a desire for National Awkening. However the heterogeneous elements in the Indian population have hitherto impeded progress in that direction ;

but signs are not wanting that with the general diffusion of education and the recognition of certain practical ideals to bring about the desired change, it shall shortly be an accomplished fact. The best of Englishmen have always stood for gradual change. The Reform Scheme, if not 'a step in advance', is undoubtedly a move in the right direction and on its successful working rests the success of India's future. 'A chase for the wild goose' is generally barren and fruitless, and it is very true in politics. The ideals may be held high, but in practical politics men have to rest themselves content with the best that can be made out of the existing circumstances. Again it should be borne in mind that individual freedom in India is as high as in any other western country. There is no censor on press. Like all other crimes, a libel, if it constitute a breach of a law, is punished after its publication. In short, whether in regard to press or in regard to criticism, comment or public meetings or general discussion, law can not prevent the commission of crimes, it can only punish them.

So much for the bright picture, but all that
 The Disadvantages of Pax Britanica glitters is not all gold. Pax
 Britanica has its own peculiar

disadvantages and these should also be studied along with the advantages thereof. First, war having been removed from India, the population of the country is increasing too fast for the food supply, and we have an almost chronic state of scarcity, which in adverse seasons is intensified into famine.

This increase of population without any advance in the standard of comfort and sanitary knowledge of the common people, has led to over-crowding (especially in the cities), and consequently the death rate has increased, and in some districts it has overtaken the birth rate. Thus Nature is sternly restoring the equilibrium. Secondly British peace, by making it safe for foreign manufacturers to send their cheap machine made goods to India, has killed our indigenous handicrafts. Every year numbers of Indian skilled workmen, such as weavers, smiths, etc., being defeated in the competition, with foreign manufacturers, have to give up their hereditary trades and swell the rank of poor landless laborers in the villages or casual wage earners in the cities. They sink to a lower stratum of society and increase the pressure on land. (Report of

Famine Commission of 1898, Ranade 29) Sirkar is of opinion that the growth of modern industries is the only possible salvation of our surplus population, since European manufactures penetrate to the humblest Indian village and the Indian artizan's occupation is gone, Thirdly foreign capital is being invested more and more in proportion to the increased security of the country. This is a gain in as much as it extends the field of Indian labor and causes the development of natural resources, and it is a loss in as much as it forestalls the Indian capitalists of the future. For this reason, in Japan foreigners are debarred by law from owning lands and acquiring mining concessions, though eminent statesmen like Count Inouye and Baron Shibusawa are opposed to such restrictions (Japan by the Japanese, 315,387,410) But "the conservation, of natural resources", for the future of the nation is of dearer importance to a people than the quick development of mines, and industries

Moreover, what India gets in the form of the Royalty is but an insignificant fraction of its value as is aptly put by an English writer, "when a metalliferous ore is exported in its raw state, and

the cost of its transport to markets is many times more than the price paid for it in India, it is obvious that whatever changes in its value may occur in future [i.e. after being manufactured in Europe], the country [of origin] is not now getting more than a small fraction of its actual worth' "Hence, caution in exploiting Indian minerals would have ultimately benefitted the country" [Sir T Holland] Most of these foreign concerns (a) have their directing boards in England, (b) employ foreign labor except in the lowest and least paid grades, and (c) send their annual profits outside India to be paid as sterling dividends. Thus they no doubt exploit the natural resources of our country, but it is for their own gain, and the only class of Indians whom they benefit are the land owners who have granted them concessions and the coolies and clerks whom they employ [J. Sarker] Sir T Holland once said to a businessman in England if the capital of Tata Hydro Electric scheme had been provided in England the profits thereof would have come to England where as they will now remain in India '

However, it can not be denied that the

The development of manufacturing industries in India. The work of Foreign Capital

transition of India from an agriculture to an industrial country and the replacement of handicrafts by steam or electric power manufactures are due entirely to European initiative. Foreign capital and enterprise have introduced in our country many industries and civilized appliances, which, but for them, for some generations must have remained unknown. Production has also greatly increased. The new undertakings give employment to nearly four millions of people. In 1908 these companies had a capital and debenture of $166\frac{1}{2}$ crores of rupees against the paid up capital (excluding debenture) of only 57 crores of all the joint stock companies registered in India, many of which were also built on European capital. Since war this has increased enormously.

Educative influence It is now that the belated Indian capitalist finds himself in a position to invest his capital in the establishment of modern industries, when foreign capital has opened all the branches of modern production and transportation in India and when the foreign capitalist has borne all trouble and loss of pioneer work and further when he

has practically demonstrated to our rich men how capital can be profitably invested. The *educative* influence of foreign capital and enterprise on a home staying and conservative people like the Indians has been invaluable. It is now that we are hastening to copy their example. Were it not for the *foreign* capitalist our capital must have remained sby and our rich men distrustful of the success of machines and large factories, just as they refused to subscribe to the Railways to start with.

Again we have been enabled to secure cheap *foreign industrial skill* from *Industrial Skill* England and other countries. This is the more difficult part of the work, for on this depends the successful working of all machinery. It is fortunate that we get them cheap in India because they come out from big factories in England.

"We owe our railways, post, telegraph offices, and cinchona plantations to Government (backed by foreign capital) Jute mills, woolen mills, paper mills, gold mining on scientific lines, breweries, modern tanneries and leather works,

rice mills, saw mills and rubber plantation (in Burma) silk filatures, tin factories, indigo factories with modern equipment, and dockyards almost entirely owned by Europeans. But tea and coffee plantation, coal mining, flour mills, rice factories, sugar factories and iron and brass foundries are shared between Indian and Europeans in varying proportions—while many minor factories, though originally introduced by Europeans, are now owned and conducted entirely by Indians. Among these are the following—Cotton presses and gins, jute presses, aerated water factories, and oil mills etc. In fact a variety of small industries conducted by machinery and requiring small capital have spread all over the country." At present there are over four thousand factories, great and small, employing over 12 lakhs of men. The commissioners, in their report published in the year 1918, thus summed up the position of industrial development in India. They found that India was rich in raw materials and in industrial possibilities but poor in manufacturing accomplishment. The deficiencies were such as to render her liable to foreign penetration in time of peace and to serious dangers in time of war. Her labor was found inefficient, but capable of improvement. They

further remarked that India's intelligentsia had yet to develop a right tradition of industrialism and depend less on foreign foremen and supervisors and that her money lay idle and inert. They also advised government intervention and advised the government to organize and maintain a suitable industrial equipment all along.

What has British Rule done for India ?

To sum up the British by setting up a very complex machinery of administration, which no other former Indian government had been capable of, have modernized India and have introduced almost all the modern inventions and appliances, which alone make the running of that gigantic machinery of administration smooth. Individual liberty, freedom of discussion, liberty of press and right of holding public meetings are secured and are generally as great as in any other Asiatic or as even in some of the Western countries. Laws are made common and popular, though justice is costly and often delayed. The scoundest maxim that ten guilty persons escape rather than one innocent be punished is generally upheld, though, at times, the powers are misused by the bureaucracy of India. This is so because very wide powers need be given to the man on the spot for

the purposes of maintaining peace and order, in accordance to the principles lying behind all good governance, but, it is a misfortune that the junior officers in India (e.g. a policeman) do not realize their high sense of duty and are often not possessed of that integrity of character which need being practised, and again, the support which they are and should be given, often results in the miscarriage of justice

Another noticeable feature of New India is that it has been connected with the world's commerce and speculation. As such opportunities and careers for more restless, ambitious and daring youths have been opened. Competition is becoming the rule though caste and family traditions still have a lot of influence in securing state service but it is not so in the field of industry where capital is essential.

At the same time individualism has been developed in place of the collectivism, which held sway over our ancient society. A man can now openly defy social opinion with impunity. The very fact that our rulers are a casteless and individualistic

people, saps the very foundation of our old collectivism. Slavery has been abolished since 1810 when according to Dr Buchanan Hamilton, a full grown bondman could be bought for Rs 15 to 20 in the Purania District.

The dignity of labor is steadily asserting itself, and labor unions are fast springing up in the country. Again science has been placed at the service of man and science does not care for custom or convention for contact with variety is the root of science. Consequently a social and economic reconstruction has been set on foot [Sarkar]

Other effects of the modernisation of India are the substitution of money economy for natural economy or cash for barter. Joint stock companies and big corporations are order of the day and manage all big concerns. Again British rule has given us one language and one currency. The confusion and waste of time which result from the existence of divers currencies, can be easily perceived in the course of a day's journey from British India to the Nazam's dominions [J Sarkar]

Lastly the above factors have greatly contributed to a *national awakening* in the country. There is a growing tendency towards unifying the Hindus and Mohammedans. Leaders of all shades of opinion are insistent on that score. However as the book goes to the press, we are informed of fresh troubles in Amritsar between Hindus and Musalmans. Unfortunately the interests are so vested, the consciousness of a superior duty so miserably ingrained, and divergence in the very principles of social, moral and religious beliefs so wide that a real union will take time. It can not be accomplished in a few years. There may be compromises and compacts with sudden outbursts of violence and broken heads to lead to a harmonious union. It is hoped that all these differences will lead towards a final agreement, without which all talk of nation building is bound to remain a snare and delusion. Each of the two communities should demonstrate its solidarity and strength against the other and should be ready and prepared to safeguard its own interests against the other, prior to its graceful exhibition and practice of the much talked off toleration, in order to bring about a solid and

all resisting union. For each person to be a good citizen it is imperative that he should cultivate from the very start the rudimentary principles of character building. Our youngmen should be made to realize the heavy responsibilities with which the government is prepared to burden them, and so long as they do not show the stern mettle inside and outside they shall not be worth their salt. A hotch potch system of life and living to which we have been accustomed hitherto will not let us successfully combat the great task that lies before us. Let each youngman as he goes out of school or college, go with a determined mind to uphold character, dignity and self respect, and again, fully conscious of the duties of a full grown citizen, to give the best in him towards the furtherance of the cause which is so dear to every Indian.

"Higher still, and higher
 From the earth thou springest,
 Like a cloud of fire
 The blue deep thou wingest,
 And singing still dost soar, and
 Soaring ever singest"

Questions on Administration.

1. Describe the political condition of India in the middle of the 18th century.
2. Write a complete note on the system of administration —
 - (a) in ancient India;
 - (b) during middle ages.
3. Trace the development of the Indian Councils since 1861.
4. What is meant by Provincial Autonomy? How has it been introduced by the Reform Act of 1919
5. What are the important changes made by the Reform Act in the Government of India? In this connexion also describe the powers and the procedures of the Indian councils.
6. Give a concise account of the relations between the Secretary of State for India and the Viceroy. Why is Home Government needed? How far does the Secretary of State interfere in the working of the Indian Government?
7. Explain fully that 'District is the unit of the British System of administration' In

this connexion enumerate the duties of a Collector Magistrate

- 8 Write a complete note on "Famines in India" What remedies are suggested to mitigate their intensity?
- 9 How can Cooperative Banks remedy the agriculture indebtedness? Show how are they a bright feature in India's economic life? How are they worked?
- 10 What is meant by local self Government? How far has it been a success in India?
- 11 Write a note on the introduction and development of the western system of education in India? Also state the advantages that have resulted therefrom
- 12 What classes of irrigation works are found in India? Show that more of 'protective works are badly needed for improvement in agriculture produce and also show how far they are possible and practicable.
- 13 Show the importance of maintaining an efficient Army in India

14 What are the advantages of British rule to the people of India? Enumerate them. Also point out the defects thereto in

15 Enumerate the advantages of a good system of communications to a country and specially of Railways to a country like India

16 Why are good means of communication a necessity for a big country like India? In this connexion detail the advantages that have resulted from Railways as also their relative claims on canals and roads.

17. What are municipalities? What is their constitution, their powers and procedure? Why have they not been a success hitherto?

18 Will the popular Government mean less expenditure? If not, why not? Give reasons. Also give the new sources of revenue

19 What are 'home charges'? How are they met? Do they really constitute a 'drain' and if so, to what extent? Explain fully. Also say what is the use of council bills to Indian merchants?



Appendix I

Number of members of Legislative Councils

Sec 7	Legislative council	Number of members
Madras	.. .	118
Bombay	.. .	111
Bengal	.. .	125
United provinces		118
Punjab	.. .	83
Behar & Orissa	.. .	98
Central provinces	.. .	70
Assam	.. .	53

Appendix 2:

OFFICIAL SALARIES

Officer.	Maximum Annual Salary.	
Governor General of India.	256,000	Rupees
Governor of Bengal, Madras, Bombay, and the United provinces.	128,000	Rupees
Commander-in-Chief	100,000	.
Governor of Punjab Behar & Orrissa	100,000	..
Governor of the Central Provinces	72,000	...
Governor of Assam	66,000	...
Lieutenant Governor.	100,000	...
Member of Governor General's Executive council other than the Civil.	80,000	..
Member of executive council of the Governor of Bengal, Madras, Bombay & the United provinces.	64,000	..
Member of the Executive council of the Governor of Punjab & Behar & Orrissa.	60,000	...
Member of the Executive council of the Governor of C P	48,000	..
Member of the Executive council of the Governor of Assam	12,000	..

APPENDIX 3

Lord Chelmsford succeeded Lord Hardinge in the year 1916. His tenure of office was one of the most eventful in the modern history of India. Owing to the great war the Indian army was increased and the Munitions Board developed the resources of the country. India assumed responsibility for 100 millions of war debt. This share of India was emphasised in a very significant way by her representation in the Imperial war cabinet in London by H H The Maharaja of Bikanir and Sir (Lord) S P Sinha. A punitive expedition had to be sent against the Mabsuds.

In 1917, Mr Montagu, who had succeeded Mr Chamberlain, as Secretary of State carried out his intention of visiting India. The visit took place at a time when the movement in favor of Home Rule for India had attained to the highest pitch yet witnessed, and at a time when the Government was anxious to meet the wishes of the people to avoid controversial political issues during the war. The visit fructified in the presentation of a Joint Report of the Governor General and Secretary of State in the spirit of the

announcement made in the Aug. 1919 "that the policy of His Majesty's Government with which the Government of India are in complete accord, is that of the increasing association of Indians in every branch of the administration and the gradual development of the self governing institutions with a view to the progressive realization of responsible Government in India as an integral part of the Empire." Shortly after this appeared the report of the special committee of Inquiry, over which Justice Rowlatt presided, into sedition crime in India. The report and the legislation thereon witnessed a solid non-official opposition in the councils and led to a renewal of political discussion and agitation in the country. Early in 1919 came prolonged strikes in Bombay and elsewhere; and the gravity was further heightened by 6,000,000 deaths during the winter of 1917-18 owing to Influenza. In the April of 1919, as a protest, was launched the Satyagrah movement by Mahatma Gandhi, and this was followed by a series of disturbances in Ahmedabad, Vrindavan, Delhi, Lahore, Amritsar and Gujranwala and other places. Exaggerated reports of these influenced the Afghans, who murdered Habibullah Khan, who had remained loyal; and after a brief occupation

of the throne by his brother Nasarullah Khan, Amanullah was declared Amir In southern Waziristan the Afghans attacked the outpost and made the campaign of unusual strength During the war the political agitation ran high and opportunity was taken to foster a bond of union between the Hindus and the Mohammedans in connexion with an agitation for safeguarding the Khilafat and maintaining the temporal power of Turkey

In face of these in the month of December the Government of India Bill was passed and on the 24th of that month was issued a proclamation from the King Emperor to the leaders and ministers to sacrifice much for the common interest remembering that true patriotism transcends party and communal boundaries In the year 1920 was published the Hunter Report, which was resented all over and resulted in the launching out of the Non Co operation Programme by Mahatma Gandhi, and Messrs Mohammad and Shaukat Ali and a number of other ladies and gentlemen Considerable discontent was also caused by the Government handling of the exchange question The labor strikes continued with a tendency towards organization On the

strength of the Esher committee report, army was reorganized in four commands in place of two and an auxiliary force was raised on a voluntary basis

The three presidency banks were amalgamated into the Imperial Bank of India

For reasons of health H R H the Prince had to abandon his projected visit to India and that work was done by the Duke of Connaught

APPENDIX 4

The Home Charges.

The Home Charges consist of the payments which India has got to pay annually to England, on the following accounts —

1	<i>Railway Revenue Account</i> in (annuities for paying up the shares of railway companies, interest on the debt for state Railway capital, price of materials), and also interest on irrigation capital	13 6	crores
2	<i>Pension and Furlough allowances</i>		
	Military } 4 52 crores }		
	Civil } 3 88 , , }	8 40	,
3	<i>Interest on Indian Public Debt</i> (Other than railway and irrigation) held in England	3 22	,
4	<i>Army expenses in England</i>		
	Payment to the British ex-chequer for British forces serving in India	1 37	,
	Transport of troops	... 0 46	,
	Payments for warships in the Indian Seas	. 0 206	,

5	<i>Stores purchased for India</i>	1 37	„
	<i>Military and Marine</i>	1 42	„
	<i>Civil, P W D telegraph, sta-</i>		
	<i>tionery etc</i>	0 92	„
6	<i>Posts and telegraph connections</i>		
	<i>with India Charges on account</i>		
	<i>of other Civil Departments</i>		
	<i>in India</i>		

The Home charges, in the year 1913 amounted to 30 crores of Rupees. But now the Secretary of States' Establishment has got to be paid out of the moneys of British Parliament. This costs India nearly 37 lakh. From the above it will be seen that 19 1/4 crores (viz items 1, 3, and 5) represent a sum for which we get our money's worth. This would have been avoided only if our Railway and public loans could have been raised in India. Then again the army department needs 28 per cent of the total. So long as the Indian sepoys and officers cannot be trusted with command, the British troops are essential, and their pay and pensions represent a premium we must provide for peace and security. It is, however, a heavy burden. Of late the Commander in Chief's announcement for Indianizing eight units has been hailed by the public and

it simply remains to be seen how and when it materializes

How India pays her debt to England

Every year the Secretary of State for India has to spend nearly 18 million Pounds sterling (the figure varies from year to year) in England on our behalf, and this must be paid to him out of the revenues of India. How is he to get this sum without increasing extra expenditure? This is devised by means of Council Bills, or (telegraphic transfers) which he sells out to merchants in England, who have to send money to India to buy our produce through their agents in India, who get these council bills cashed at the Government treasuries. Sometimes when Indian treasuries are short of money and can pay only a portion of Home charges, the Secretary of State sells bills to that extent only and raises the balance by contracting a debt in England. But very often trade requires more council bills, and in such cases he draws bills for the surplus amount but they are paid in India out of the paper currency or gold Standard Reserve, while their price, paid in London, is afterwards transmitted to India in silver bullion to fill up the gap in the Reserve. Thus

the Secretary of State is the greatest exchange banker working between England and India. Lord Lamington, in a speech on Jan 20th 1913, held that the Secretary of State should not draw on Indian revenues beyond his actual requirements, as it hampers the employment of capital in India, [Cf. Howard chap III]

The system of India's payment to England operates by means of a long chain the Indian peasant sells his grain, jute or cotton to exporters in order to pay the Government revenue and taxes (Ind Emp III 271) The government parts with these rupees to the exporters whose London representatives have paid the equivalent of this money to the Secretary of State who spends the amount in England Those who look only at the two ends of the chain say that every year so much of our money is drained out of India But the fact is that the prices of these food stuffs and raw materials would have remained in India and nourished our Industries if only all our public debt had been raised locally (at the same low rate of interest), if all our officers had made India their home, and all the stores that a modern government needs have been manufactured here

However the fact remains that India has got to part with nearly 30 crores of rupees worth of goods in excess of her imports. This is due to the following causes - (a) India has to pay her debt in raw materials, which are dependent on nature; (b) Freight charges for raw materials are more than they are for manufactured articles for they occupy less space (c) Since more goods go out of India than come to it ships carrying goods out charge more (d) From the national point of view we have to part with grain, which constitutes the very means of nourishing the people for our luxuries (e) thus the excess amount of exports over imports is generally called the drain and this could have been prevented if all our capitalists would have been Indians and if all the officers had made India their home

Again that part of the Home charges which is spent in buying out the English shareholders of Indian Railway is a means of the nationalization of Railways and cannot be called a drain. Similarly, the interest on our sterling debt is the inevitable price of the money which we received in the past, and it will cease when all our public

debt is held in India. Even Russia and United States, who are yet developing, have to pay interest. But United States and Russia also pay more in manufactured articles and are connected with the monetary system of Europe, and consequently India pays out her debt by sending out 44 p c of raw materials and 31 p c of food stuffs, (Sirkar), (Cf Alasor 281 109, Howard Chap IV) Also see Ind, Emp 17 194, Dutt 356, 604, 605 and Gokhale's speech 207, and Return on East India Home Charge's Cd 327 of 1893).
